The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 14, 1888.

The Week.

THE debate on the section of the Mills bill relating to salt was so overwhelmingly strong on the side of the supporters of the bill that the subject was disposed of at a single sitting. The discussion was opened by Mr. Cox of New York in his usual epigrammatic and incisive style. He showed that the present tariff discriminates against the dairyman and in favor of the meat-packer and the fish-packer, by giving the latter a drawback on the salt used by them, while the butter-maker was not allowed the same privilege. Mr. Burrows of Michigan, remembering, perhaps, that he had himself voted in the Forty-second Congress in favor of free salt, prudently abstained, in his reply to Mr. Cox, from following the customary rôle of his side of the House, and saying the admission of salt free of duty would ruin the salt industry of the United States, and throw all the laborers out of employment, and destroy untold millions of capital. So he took the ground that it was wrong to surrender any portion of our market to foreign salt. He had stated, however, in the beginning of his speech that one-third of the salt used in the United States was foreign. In other words, the existing duty on salt, fixed by a Republican Congress, of which Mr. Burrows himself was a member, for which he had himself voted after having voted in favor of no duty at all, was wrong, because it did and does permit the importation of salt to the extent of one-third of the country's present requirements. Mr. Burrows concluded his speech by saying that Michigan could do well enough without the salt tax, because she had the Northwestern markets at her command, in which foreign salt could not compete by reason of the freight charges. But he was so much concerned for the Syracuse salt-boilers that he could not vote for the bill. Moreover, he wanted to "stimulate" the salt industry in Louisiana and Texas and all along the Southern coast.

His colleague, Mr. Whiting of Michigan, made the most effective speech in favor of free salt. He said that he was himself a salt manufacturer, and that he was not afraid of foreign competition. He confirmed all that Mr. Cox had said concerning the necessity of having foreign salt for dairy purposes, on account of its peculiar chemical properties. He confirmed Mr. Cox on the point that there was an unjust discrimination at present against dairymen, and in favor of meat and fish packers (this point having been denied by Mr. Belden of New York). Mr. Whiting said further that he was selling Michigan salt at the present time all along the Atlantic seaboard, and that he could "compete with English salt anywhere in America and make a profit." This statement threw the Republican side of the House in a terrible flutter, which Mr. Tarsney of Michigan, the immediate representative of the Saginaw district, increased by producing the *Congressional Globe* of the Forty-second Congress, and showing how Burrows himself, together with Mr. Reed of Maine, Mr. Frank Hiscock of Syracuse, N. Y., Mr. Hoar and a majority of all the Republicans in the House, had voted for Eugene Hale's free-salt bill in 1871. Mr. Cox added that the bill was put through under the inspiration of Speaker Blaine. The independence of the country was lost by a vote of 86 to 46, and salt was put on the free list.

The Republican plan of campaign for the pending contest is openly confessed to be what is known in political parlance as "working the free-trade racket." To every argument in favor of the Democratic ticket and platform, the one answer is to be a loud cry of "Free trade!" There are two difficulties in the way of carrying out this policy. The first is that it "insults the intelligence" of the people, as Mr. Depew, when running on the Democratic ticket in this State a few years ago, said of the companion dodge, which used to be known as "working the rebel-debt racket," when Mr. Blaine was exploiting it on the Republican stump. In other words, the Republican programme in 1888 is based upon the assumption that the American people are a pack of fools. The other Republican difficulty is hardly less serious. The Democrats in 1888 are only attempting to do in this matter of tariff revision exactly the same thing which the Republicans declared to be just and right a few years ago.

The manufacturers of the silly slanders about President Cleveland and his family made the great mistake which nearly all compounders of "campaign stories" are guilty of—putting it too strongly. It was bad policy to make the President's conduct in his home so very outrageous, and Mrs. Cleveland so frightfully unhappy, because this led to instant arrest and conviction, while they might, by merely hinting and winking and pretending to know more than they were willing to tell, have gone on for two or three months without being caught or brought to book. It is melancholy to see that, as four years ago, the leader in this dirty and shameful business was a minister. It was a Reverend C. H. Pendleton, a Baptist minister of Worcester, Mass., who brought back from a ministerial visit to Washington the disgusting fables about the President's "orgies" at the White House, and his brutality to his wife. Since Mrs. Cleveland's crushing letter, Mr. Pendleton says he is sorry, that he did not say all the reporter made him say, and got a promise from the reporter not to print what he did say, and offers, with a whine, to apologize and vote for Cleveland this year by way of expiation. But he cannot mend matters in this way. He would aggravate his offence by offering Mr. Cleveland his vote. The best atonement he can make is to vote for Blaine, or "Tom" Platt, or somebody of that sort.

The confessions of the Rev. Pendleton recall vividly the way in which the managers of the Blaine canvass in 1884 tried to use the ministers of various denominations as a means of propagating their filthy slanders about Mr. Cleveland in that year. They actually got up a "clerical bureau," manned by an unattached minister, whose special duty it was to spread accounts of Cleveland's immorality and Blaine's purity and piety in a quiet way through the religious circles of the whole country. In the present case they resorted to somewhat the same device. When the Baptist Conference met in Washington, the newly constructed stories about the President and his wife were quietly spread among the ministers, so that when they passed the White House, they should think of the dreadful doings within and shudder, and, when they went home, should spread the news through their congregations, as things too shameful to publish, but desirable for every Christian voter to know. How far this poison would have spread, or how much mischief it would have wrought if an unscrupulous reporter had not enticed Mr. Pendleton into talkativeness, it is, of course, impossible to say. By the way, why are some ministers so much more credulous with regard to the vices of drunkenness and licentiousness, than with regard to lying, cheating, and corruption? It is the easiest thing possible to make a lodgment in their minds for a charge that an outwardly respectable man drinks too much wine and is unfaithful to his wife, but they are exceedingly loath to believe that he made his money dishonestly, that his donations to colleges and churches come out of the pockets of victims, or that he takes fees for his vote in Congress. And yet the one, as the world goes, is just as probable as the other.

"A Civil-Service Reformer" writes to the *Times*, calling attention to a significant contrast between the St. Louis Convention and that of the Republicans four years ago:

> "Four years ago the Chicago gathering was the convention by the party in power. According to the official organ of the Republican party in this city, there were present at the Chicago Convention 'considerably over 100 delegates who are [were] Federal officials, and there is [was] a much larger number of officials here [there] who are [were] not delegates.' Among the 'over 250 Federal office-holders' present were the Collector of the Port of New York, the First Assistant Postmaster-General, the United States District Attorney for the Troy district, the Collector for the Port of Buffalo, the Register of the Treasury, and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue. The First Assistant Postmaster-General was the avowed leader of the forces seeking a renomination of the President. Now compare this with the St. Louis Convention, which is the Administration convention this year, and what do we see? From the most reliable newspaper accounts there are at the outside only a few Federal officials in attendance, and among them not a single one of the im-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

portance of the officials mentioned above. I do not know a single Federal office-holder from this city who is there."

This is all true so far as Federal officials are concerned. In that respect the present Convention is a great advance upon any which has been held by a party in power for many years. Four years ago the Collector of the port of New York was a Republican delegate, and was one of the recognized leaders of the Blaine boom. Now the Collector of the port is attending to the duties of his office, and, so far as we have been able to learn, all his assistants, except Deputy-Collector Davis, are doing the same. We wish that the same thing could be said of State and city officials, but it cannot. There is a shamefully large number of them from this State present at St. Louis, but of course the President has no control over them. The absence of Federal officials is, however, a gain which can scarcely be overestimated. For the first time in many years, it can be truthfully said that the custom-houses of the land are taking no part in the nomination of a President. When we consider that the last Republican Collector of New York received his appointment as a reward for service rendered in a national Convention, and went to the following national Convention as a delegate and worker for the man who secured him his reward, in spite of the fact that the giving of the reward split the party in twain and brought on a quarrel which incited a lunatic to shoot the President, we begin to realize what progress civil-service reform has made.

Mr. Collins's speech as Chairman of the Convention at St. Louis was much above the level of such efforts. It was measured and dignified in tone, and free from extravagance of every description. He indulged but slenderly in the old, time-honored "arraignment" of the enemy, and made a more impressive deliverance of the Democratic gospel than the party has listened to since the old days before slavery began to bewilder the disciples. We wish we could say as much for the blast with which the redoubtable Mr. Dougherty renominated Mr. Cleveland. The noise of it was tremendous, but the sense of it only scanty. It is well that it made no difference by whom the nomination was made, or how it was made. Some Tammany man had to do the work, and Mr. Dougherty now carries the Tammany trombone, and, "Gad, sir," as we once heard a colored man remark of a player of that instrument, "how he makes that thing talk." It was Mr. Dougherty who treated the last meeting of the State Bar Association to a "paper" on the awful license of the press, about which he displayed great gloom for a man of naturally buoyant temperament. Mr. Bourke Cockran, who is the Tammany tuba, would have done the work better. His gift of speech is as good as Mr. Dougherty's and he is thought on the whole less nebulous.

The Democratic Convention of 1884 declared that "we favor honest civil-service reform." The Democratic Convention of 1888 "reaffirms the platform adopted by its representatives in the Convention of 1884," and with reference to this particular subject says: "Honest reform in the civil service has been inaugurated and maintained by President Cleveland, and he has brought the public service to the highest standard of efficiency, not only by rule and precept, but by the example of his own untiring and unselfish administration of public affairs." It will thus be seen that the party occupies precisely the same position on this subject now as four years ago. Then it grudgingly declared in favor of "honest civil-service reform"; now it reaffirms that declaration, and endorses in the same grudging way the inauguration and maintenance of "honest civil-service reform" by the President.

As the time for the Chicago Convention draws near, it becomes apparent that Mr. Sherman will lead all competitors on the first ballot. His friends claim 340 delegates to start with, 411 being a majority. It is not unlikely that he will have upwards of 300. This will constitute a very powerful attracting body, especially since Mr. Sherman has managed his boom this time in such a way as not to give any just cause of offence to any other candidate. The formidableness of his strength is attested unmistakably by the alarm which it creates among the Blaine-or-Bust faction, who have partly recovered from the dejection into which they were thrown by the last letter of their chief saying that "since he could not accept the nomination now without seeming to be guilty of indirection, he could not accept it at all." These refined casuists are now saying to each other that Mr. Blaine could still accept the nomination if it should come to him without any suspicion of indirection on his part. They have not given up the idea that the Convention may get into a tangle and a deadlock, from which nothing but the name of Blaine can extricate it. This is the reason why they are so disturbed by the growing proportions of the Sherman boom, for, if any candidate can muster 300 votes on the first ballot, the chances of a permanent deadlock are very faint. What would best suit the Blaine-or-Busters would be about 100 votes each for Sherman, Gresham, Harrison, Alger, Depew, Hawley, Ingalls; and the rest scattering, but mostly for Blaine. Three hundred votes for any one other than Blaine is a bad showing for them, because the attraction of gravitation is sometimes as strong as that of magnetism.

The Republicans are in danger of overdoing the Oregon business. The average organ is disposed to treat the result in that State as settling the Presidential election. Experience has shown that preliminary State elections in Presidential years are most untrustworthy guides. Two illustrations will suffice to show this. In September, 1876, the Republicans swept Maine as they have just swept Oregon, and Mr. Blaine telegraphed Gov. Hayes an exultant message. Two months later the nation voted for President, and the Democratic candidate carried New York by 32,742 votes, New Jersey by 12,445, Indiana by 5,515, and Connecticut by 2,900. On the other hand, in September, 1880, the Republicans were badly beaten in Maine, losing the Governorship and two of the Congressional districts. The Democrats all over the land jumped to the conclusion that they were going to carry the country. But in November the Republican candidate for President carried New York by 21,033 votes, Indiana by 6,642, and Connecticut by 2,656.

The nomination of a Chief Justice was sent to the Senate on the 30th of April. It is now the 14th of June, and action upon it is still deferred. Deliberation in the case of an office of such importance is quite justifiable, and nobody can blame a Senate committee for taking ample time for investigation and consideration, especially in the case of a nominee previously unknown to the country. But it certainly seems as though a month and a half were sufficient time to enable a committee to make up their minds whether they should recommend the confirmation of a nomination. Mr. Waite was scarcely better known at the time of his nomination than Mr. Fuller, yet the Senate acted upon his case within a week. The "advice and consent of the Senate" are required to make a nomination of the President effective, but it is obvious that the framers of the Constitution expected the Senate either to give or to refuse its consent, and never contemplated the idea of its declining to take any action at all. All this is, of course, entirely aside from the question of Mr. Fuller's fitness for the Chief Justiceship. If he is not qualified for the place, his nomination ought not to be confirmed, but it ought to be rejected outright, so that the President may offer another name and the vacancy be filled before the fall term of the court opens.

It is not worth while to spend time refuting Gov. Hill's reasons for vetoing the Ballot-Reform Bill. Nobody believes for a moment that these reasons furnish the true cause for his action. He has vetoed the bill because it was in the interest of honest and fair elections, free from the taint of bribery and political machine manipulation. He pretends that under the provisions of the bill it would not be so easy as it is now for voters to exercise their individual preferences, or for candidates to get their names upon the ballots. As a matter of fact, it would be in every way easier. It is impossible now for any candidate except those of the regular machines to get his tickets distributed at the polls, unless he spends anywhere from $1,000 to $100,000, according to the importance of the office. The new law furnished safely guarded methods for him to get his name on the ballots, and even if he did not get it there, his friends who should desire to vote for him were given the privilege of writing his name in a blank space which was provided on the ballots for

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

that purpose. If the Governor had not been able to find the reasons which he has given, he would have been equal to the emergency of finding others upon which to base a veto. We trust that the State is nearing the end of its experience with this cheap political trickster.

The *Tribune* had an article the other day entitled "The *Bridgewater* Case," representing that an American ship of this name sailing for Liverpool and encountering a storm put into the Canadian port of Shelburne for repairs, where she discharged her cargo, and where her owner, Mr. Allen, finally concluded to sell her. The ship was sold at auction, but, the offers not being satisfactory, she was bid in for his own account. Whether the latter fact was known to the Canadian customs authorities at the time or not does not appear, but it was forthwith made known to them by Allen. They then required him to deposit the amount of the duty payable on imported ships *pro forma*, make his repairs, and receive the money as a drawback when he should depart. This he refused to do, but appealed to the Ottawa Government, and procured from the latter a release from the payment of duties and the right to repair his ship and leave the port. The owner now claims $25,000 damages for unlawful detention, and is supposed to have filed a claim for that sum with the State Department. The *Tribune* feels quite sure that Secretary Bayard will prove as pusillanimous and cringing as is his wont when he takes up the case, although there was no evidence that it had reached him at all at the time the article was written.

The case certainly presents one novel point. The right to enter a foreign port for repairs is one of the common rights of humanity recognized by the laws of all civilized nations. The right to sell a ship in a foreign port is subject to the laws of the country. It may be prohibited altogether, or it may subject the ship to the payment of duties, or it may be permitted freely. Under our laws such a sale could not be made with a view to making it an American ship unless the repairs amounted to three-fourths of her total value. It could be made, however, to anybody who wanted to sail her under a foreign flag, but she would not be allowed to engage in the coastwise trade. The point of interest in the *Bridgewater* case, if there is any such point, is whether the Canadian customs authorities, when they learned that Allen was the purchaser of his own ship at the auction sale, were justified in requiring him to deposit the amount of the duties as security that he intended to take her home or to proceed on his voyage after his repairs were made. The action of the Ottawa Government would seem to imply that they had no right to do so. But it is plain that the difficulty has not arisen from any denial of the rights of hospitality, but from the fact that a public sale was made in a Canadian port of an article which was *prima-facie* liable to duty. We think that Secretary Bayard will get through it somehow, but of course the opportunity to twist the British lion's tail ought not to be overlooked.

The Rev. James Freeman Clarke, who died on Friday in Boston, at the ripe age of seventy-eight, was one of the last of a generation of Unitarian ministers who have no successors, and whose prominence and influence in Boston society gave it for half a century a flavor of its own which is now almost extinct. He came on the scene just as Emerson was leaving the ministry, and, like all his contemporaries in the Unitarian denomination, caught enough of the Emersonian philosophy to make his theology a considerable, and in fact almost fatal, departure from what the older men, who began the secession, considered sound doctrine. He was what used to be called in those days a "scholarly man," rather than what is now called a scholar—that is, he was widely read rather than profoundly learned in any one field. His gentleness, sweetness of temper, great powers of sympathy, and endless patience in kindness would have made him a strong influence always, even if his absolute integrity of purpose had not made him in his best days a real force. He was an outspoken anti-slavery man in the darkest hour of the cause, and never ceased to take a strong and active interest in politics, and always on the moral side, with an indifference to political consequences which the constituents who sent him to conventions not only pardoned, but admired. He wrote a great deal on matters pertaining to religion, but all his books were rather edifying than critical, for he, as we have said, came before the days of insatiable research and collation. But he was before all things a good man, who was the guide, philosopher, and untiring friend of two generations, and his activity in well doing lasted so long that he will be mourned as few men are mourned who had so nearly reached four-score years.

The *Tribune* had two columns on Sunday giving a sad account of the condition of the working classes in Holland. It summed it all up in this way editorially:

> "The letter printed this morning describing how the average workingman of Holland lives, deserves to be studied and pondered by students of our industrial conditions and labor problems. The average wages of the Dutch laborer are $3 a week (he works twelve hours a day), and for 'skilled labor of a very high class' not more than $4.50 to $5 is paid—scarcely more than carpenters and bricklayers receive here for a day's work. Not one day-laborer in Amsterdam owns his own home, and the idea that skilled workmen in this country may earn enough to buy houses for their families is incredible to artisans of the same class in Holland. Holland enjoys the blessings of free trade. Do American workingmen hanker after blessings of this sort?"

Now, Mr. Chauncey Depew described the state of things in Holland in 1884 as follows in the *Tribune* of February 26 of this year, and the *Tribune* heartily endorsed him the same day: "Four years ago, when I went abroad, I went to Holland. When I was over there, I found that there *was more content and happiness in Holland than in any country in Europe. There was absolutely no pauperism.*" At that time Holland had been for full fifty years in the enjoyment of almost absolute free trade, such free trade as has never been witnessed in any other country, and as does not exist even in England to-day. It is true that Holland is still in the enjoyment of the same free trade; but if free trade worked so well down to 1884, how are we to account for the ruin it has wrought, according to the *Tribune*, within, say, the last two years? We know of only one way of accounting for it, but to this we are far too polite to resort. We must leave it to the imagination of our readers.

The warning which the London *Economist* recently gave against accepting the official statistics of the commerce of the Argentine Republic as entirely accurate is strikingly confirmed by Dr. Latzina, the Chief of the Argentine Bureau of Statistics. The *Economist* surmised that the great increase in the foreign commerce of the republic, as reported for 1887, was partly due to exaggerated estimates of the value of both imports and exports, in consequence of a depreciated currency and business inflation. But Dr. Latzina goes much further, in his returns for 1886, and admits that the values assigned to the articles of Argentine foreign trade are to a considerable extent "fictitious." He arrives at this conclusion partly from a review of the official figures for the past twenty-six years, according to which the balance of trade against the republic would be no less than 210 millions. As he sensibly remarks, this is incredible on its face. He shows, too, that the surprising falling off in the exports of 1886 as compared with the preceding year was attributable in large part to arbitrary changes in valuation, not to really smaller quantities of exports. An error on the other side may very well account, then, for the large reported increase of 1887. All this is a fresh reminder of the distance we have yet to travel before arriving at a science of universal statistics. It may be that the South American States are not sinners above all the rest of the world in putting forth untrustworthy statistics, but at any rate there are many particularly provoking things in their practice. They sin in good company in adopting awkwardly varying fiscal years; but in their confused system of public accounts, the books often being two or three years behindhand, in their frequent resort to estimates in the absence of exact returns, and in their arbitrary ways of valuation of imports and exports, they have an easy preëminence. Hence it comes about that the contradictions between their official reports and those of England or the United States in the points where the two cover the same ground, or ought to, are so blank and inexplicable. It is to be said, however, that they are conscious of their shortcomings, that they acknowledge them, and are making commendable efforts at reform. We have had especial occasion to notice the great improvement of recent official publications of Mexico in this regard; and if the earnest endeavors of Dr. Latzina are not entirely unsuccessful, he will speedily bring the Argentine statistics into far better shape than they ever have been.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

THE ST. LOUIS CONVENTION.

THE renomination of President Cleveland by the National Convention of his party has been so much expected, and so little doubtful at any time, that criticism and comment are for the most part superfluous. It is usually the case, when there is no contest over the first place on the ticket, that the competition for the second place excites great interest; but the preëminent merits of Mr. Thurman as a statesman and a citizen have far overshadowed all others that here also the interest of the public, who always like a close race, measurably abated. In fact, the great struggle at St. Louis has been over the platform, and over a single one of its component parts. This struggle began when the President's message was delivered, and it has culminated in an endorsement of the principles of the message. The result could hardly have been otherwise, because if Mr. Cleveland were to be renominated, he must be taken as he is. To have taken him in any other way would have made the Democratic party the laughing-stock for gods and men. The party would in such case have been beaten without the honor of a fight.

The platform endorses the principles of the President's message and the efforts of the Democratic representatives in Congress to secure an adequate reduction of taxation and to reduce the surplus in the Treasury. This is a brave and manly stand. It is in no sense a "straddle" or a deception. The message has been before the people long enough for everybody to understand it. It describes a situation of the national finances which everybody acknowledges to be full of peril. It calls for a reduction of tariff taxation in the interest of the great mass of the people, in order that they may obtain the necessaries of life and the materials of industry at lower rates, and at the same time avoid the impending evil of a lock-up of the people's money in the Treasury. Nothing could be plainer or less liable to misconception. By endorsing the message, therefore, the Democratic party has at all events challenged the respect of enemies as well as friends, and, whatever the outcome may be, it has created a live issue, and one which will not cease to dominate American politics until it is settled on principles fair and just to all. Never since the days of feudal tyranny and monopoly has there been a system so cunningly devised to widen the gap between different classes of society, and to fertilize the rich man's domain with the sweat of the poor man's brow, as the present tariff of the United States—a system denounced as unjust by scores of the most eminent Republican statesmen now living, who will now neither do anything to right its admitted wrongs, nor allow anybody else to do so if they can prevent it.

The Democrats have taken their stand, not without some contest, but yet manfully and openly. What will the Republicans do when their turn comes? We need not anticipate what particular form of words they will employ in their platform. It is not what they may say at Chicago, but what they will do in Washington, that will be decisive. The Treasury surplus is a fact of gigantic proportions. It cannot even be got rid of by a plank in a platform. It cannot be got rid of by new pension bills, and river and harbor jobs, and such like profligacy. It is too great, too near at hand. Pension bills and public works take time to get in operation. The surplus is a present fact, growing from day to day. The purchases of bonds have almost ceased because the offerings are few and the prices exorbitant. The public have seen how the bondholders have advanced their prices from day to day. They have a monopoly of the thing that the Government wants, and they take advantage of it as a matter of course. They are not to blame. Everybody would do the same thing. It is a commercial question, and must be governed by commercial rules.

What solution of this problem will the Republicans offer in place of the Tariff-Reduction Bill? The Democrats are now bound to pass their bill in some form. They are bound to pass some bill which shall bring down the public receipts to the measure of the public needs. There is no retreat from this position. They must go forward and pass their bill, however long the time required. Then the Republicans must take the position they are willing to abide by and make their campaign upon. The project of repealing the tax on liquors has been abandoned. What next? A few weeks ago the favorite plan was to repeal the sugar duties and give a bounty out of the Treasury to the planters. But the bounty plan seems to have been losing ground of late. Bounties are "catching." There are so many low-spirited industries to which a bounty would prove attractive—wheat-growing, for example—that the longer heads in the party hesitate to adopt that policy in reference to sugar. The alternative is to cast the sugar planters adrift, and make free sugar the Republican tariff policy of the campaign. When this is done, the issue will be somewhat simplified. The question will be asked why wages in the sugar industry should be cut down to the West India standard or the slave-labor standard, and why one American industry should be selected as a sacrifice for the benefit of all others. Oregon has given her verdict against tariff reform undoubtedly, but the end is not yet. We are only at the beginning.

ALLEN G. THURMAN.

THE nomination of Allen G. Thurman for Vice-President illustrates anew the weakness of our electoral system, so far as it affects that office. Theoretically, the man who is elected to the second place ought to be qualified in every respect for the first, since experience has shown that there is one chance in six of his being called upon to fill the higher position. Mr. Thurman would not for a moment be considered, under any circumstances, a candidate for President, because everybody would say that a man in his seventy-fifth year is too old for the Presidency. Yet a convention nominates a man who is in his seventy-fifth year, to an office whose holder is liable at any time during his term to become President. It nominates him in accordance with the traditional custom of selecting the candidate for Vice-President on the ground of his "availability" as a help to the Presidential nominee during the canvass.

That Mr. Thurman is a strong nominee for campaign purposes will be generally admitted. His name will warm the hearts of a good many old Democrats who have never had much sympathy with the new generation which Mr. Cleveland represents. His very age is in itself a help to his candidacy in one aspect, since it appeals to the pride which all well-regulated party men feel in an "old Roman." Moreover, it will be extremely embarrassing for the Republicans to make an issue of Mr. Thurman's age. If they say that a man who was born in November, 1813, is too old to be Vice-President, it follows necessarily that a man who was born in March, 1813, is too old to be a member of the Supreme Court, and Judge Bradley should at once resign his seat on the bench and allow Mr. Cleveland to appoint a Democratic successor. Practically, the age issue will not count for much. The voter who thinks that Mr. Cleveland is a better man for President than the Republican candidate, will not be deterred from voting for him because he thinks that a younger man ought to have been nominated for Vice-President.

Except in the matter of age, Mr. Thurman is the best man whom the Democracy could present for the Vice-Presidency. His public career has been a long and an honorable one, the only spot upon which was made by his yielding, with so many other good men of both parties, to the soft-money craze which swept over the West fifteen years ago. He was elected to the lower branch of Congress in 1844, was judge of the Ohio Supreme Court from 1851 to 1854, and its Chief Justice for the next two years, and United States Senator from 1869 to 1881. The historian whose judgments every good Republican unhesitatingly accepts has bestowed upon him the highest praise. In his 'Twenty Years of Congress,' Mr. Blaine says of Mr. Thurman that "his rank in the Senate was established from the day he took his seat, and was never lowered during the period of his service. His retirement from the Senate was a serious loss to his party—a loss, indeed, to the body. He left behind him the respect of all with whom he had been associated during his twelve years of honorable service."

If Mr. Thurman is sent back to the capital, he will return with the unique satisfaction of finding the sound doctrines of the Constitution, for which he made a gallant but hopeless fight against a Republican majority in the Senate, established for all time by the decisions of a Republican Supreme Court overthrowing the acts which he vainly protested were unconstitutional. Since his retirement in 1881, the highest judicial tribunal has rendered a series of decisions which fully sustain Mr. Thurman's position on the great issue of State rights, and which indeed sometimes read almost like extracts from his own speeches. When he entered the Senate in 1869 there were but nine other Democrats in the body, the House was Re-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

publican more than two to one, and the school represented by Oliver P. Morton in the Senate and Benjamin F. Butler in the House were carrying through laws based upon the theory that the new amendments to the Constitution had worked a revolution in the relations of the States to the Federal Government.

The history of the Civil-Rights Act shows how Mr. Thurman was beaten by numbers in Congress, but saw his position ultimately adopted by the Supreme Court. This act was based upon the theory that Congress possessed the right to interfere in the States, and punish persons who denied blacks equal rights with whites in hotels, conveyances, etc. The claim was made that Congress had been given this right by the Fourteenth Amendment. Mr. Thurman earnestly contested the claim. He pointed out that the amendment only gave Congress the right to interfere when a "*State* shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States," whereas it was not pretended that any *State* had made or enforced any such law. It is interesting to see how closely the reasoning upon this point of the Republican Supreme Court in the decision of 1883, declaring the act unconstitutional, agreed with that of Mr. Thurman in his arguments of 1874:

MR. THURMAN.	THE SUPREME COURT.
"No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States," says the Fourteenth Amendment. Does this bill deal with any such law of a State? No, sir; it does not profess to do so. It is not aimed at any law of a State. It is aimed against the acts of individuals. There is not one single sentence in the whole bill which is levelled against any law made or enforced by a State. . . . Why, sir, if it is constitutional reasoning that supports this bill, then I confess that all my studies of the Constitution have been wholly in vain.	An inspection of the law shows that it makes no reference whatever to any supposed or apprehended violation of the Fourteenth Amendment on the part of the States. It is not predicated on any such view. It proceeds *ex directo* to declare that certain acts committed by individuals shall be deemed offences, and shall be prosecuted, and punished by proceedings in the courts of the United States. . . . We are of opinion that no countenance of authority for the passage of the law in question can be found either in the Thirteenth or Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution, and, no other ground of authority for its passage being suggested, it must necessarily be declared void.

It has seldom been allowed a man to enjoy such a triumph as Mr. Thurman must feel in the decisions of a Supreme Court controlled by his political opponents, asserting his views of the Constitution, and annulling act after act which he had fought on the ground that they were unconstitutional. The fact shows most strikingly how complete is the settlement of the State-rights issue. No Republican dares dissent from the position laid down by a Republican Supreme Court, while every Democrat applauds the assertion by that tribunal of the doctrines which Mr. Thurman so ably maintained.

THE ISSUES OF THE CANVASS.

THE tariff plank in the Democratic platform of 1884, which the Convention at St. Louis has endorsed as interpreted by President Cleveland's message, was as follows, and we place beside it the corresponding plank in the Republican platform of the same year:

DEMOCRATIC.	REPUBLICAN.
That change is necessary is proved by an existing surplus of more than $100,000,000, which has yearly been collected from a suffering people. Unnecessary taxation is unjust taxation. . . . The Democratic party is pledged to revise the tariff in a spirit of fairness to all interests.	The Democratic party has failed completely to relieve the people of the burden of unnecessary taxation by a wise reduction of the surplus. The Republican party pledges itself to correct the inequalities of the tariff and to reduce the surplus.

Mr. Blaine's comment on the Republican plank in his letter of acceptance was: "Revenue laws are in their very nature subject to frequent revision, in order that they may be adapted to changes and modifications of trade. The Republican party is not contending for the permanency of any particular statute." It thus appears that up to this time both parties have adhered to the general principle that the tariff levied a certain amount of unnecessary taxation, and ought to be reduced; that it contained numerous inequalities, and ought to be revised. The Democrats, having a majority in the lower house, have proceeded to embody this principle in legislation, and the result is the Mills bill. The Republicans ought to have met this either by a series of amendments to the Mills bill or by a bill of their own. They have done neither. They have refused to adhere to their platform of 1884 at all. What they now say, and are very likely to embody in their platform at Chicago, is that there is no "unnecessary taxation"; that the surplus can be disposed of by being spent; that the tariff does not need revision, and that any proposal to reduce it or remove its inequalities is a proposal to establish "free trade." They traverse Mr. Blaine's assertion that revenue laws should be frequently altered, "in order that they may be adapted to changes and modifications of trade," by maintaining that the particular revenue laws under which we now live do not need to be altered at all. The *Tribune* on Friday last, in fact, treated the Democratic platform and the President's message as "a direct issue between Free Trade and Protection."

There is accordingly hardly a doubt that the cry of "free trade" will play the same part on the Republican stump this summer which the "rebel debt" played between 1872 and 1880. That is to say, their orators will allege that the Democrats propose to establish "British free trade," just as in 1872, 1876, and 1880 they maintained that the Democrats, if they got into power, would pay the rebel debt, compensate the slaveholders for the loss of their slaves, pay the claims of Southerners for damages suffered by the operations of the army during the war, and probably repudiate the national debt in whole or in part. The total loss and liability which these things would impose on the North was set forth in figures in the New York *Tribune*, and naturally made a deep impression on a large number of voters. Of course all allusion to these bogies has now ceased, and one of the Republican organs, the Philadelphia *Press*, recently, with amusing brass, made fun of them. But during the years above mentioned they were real weapons of political warfare, and were relied on for victories at the polls just as firmly as the cry of "free trade" is now likely to be.

What is the reason of this change of attitude on the part of the Republicans towards the tariff? Why do they now oppose all revision and denounce as a "free-trader" any one who proposes to correct its "inequalities"? The reason is to be found in the way in which the tariff is constructed. It must be remembered that it is not a scientific tariff properly so called—that is, a tariff drawn up by a body of experts for the purpose of affording protection to such selected industries as were considered most necessary to the national welfare or safety, and, therefore, most deserving of State encouragement—such a tariff, in short, as Colbert made for France, or as the Parliament of landholders made for England. It is a tariff constructed for the purpose of giving some protection to everybody who asked for it. There never has been any plan about it, or any pretence of one; consequently, nobody who profits by it is able to say that his claims are in any way peculiar or eminent, or that there are reasons for protecting him which do not exist for protecting other people. Each beneficiary feels that he has no guarantee for his own protection but the general support and cohesion of all the other beneficiaries, and that, therefore, any argument or influence which diminishes or destroys the protection given to one must sensibly endanger the protection given to all others. The protected interests feel like a square formed to resist cavalry: if one man gives way, the enemy may get in through the gap and break up the formation. Or they may liken it to a brick arch from which you cannot take a single brick without weakening the whole structure.

This explains the cry of "free trade" which is and will be raised against tariff reformers. It means the fear that if any changes or modifications are made in the existing tariff, and it should prove in the course of a year or two that they had not had the injurious effects on trade and industry which were predicted for them, the work of revision might be carried further, and that there would be no telling where it would end.

Now, can the cry of "free trade," under these circumstances, be made to do service during a whole summer's canvass? We think not, because it will not bear examination in the light of notorious facts. It was successful in 1880, because it was not raised until the middle of September, after Maine had been lost under the "bloody shirt" cry. A change of tactics was then suddenly resolved on, and it produced a panic—precipitated by the extraordinary weakness of the Democratic candidate on all fiscal questions—which it was impossible to dissipate in the month which remained.

Moreover, in 1880, the question of the surplus had not come up. To-day the surplus forms the most portentous fact of the situation. No one can go on the stump and denounce

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tariff revision and reduction of taxation without in some manner meeting the question what is to be done with the surplus—a question which in 1880 did not trouble Dorsey, or Jay Hubbell, or any of their confrères. The only mode of disposing of it which Republican organs now suggest, is to spend it in various forms of national extravagance. This plan may now and then be thrown out as a suggestion without causing much embarrassment. But does any one seriously believe that the orators and journals of a great party can argue in defence of such a plan and set out its details to audiences all over the country through a long summer? If any one does seriously believe this, he must also seriously believe that a change has come over the attitude of the American people on the subject of governmental expenditure, so complete as to make the permanence of popular institutions among us very doubtful.

SUPPORTING CLEVELAND.

A VERMONT clergyman writes to us:

"I enclose $3 to renew my subscription once more for the *Nation*. It is as nearly indispensable to me, for more reasons than one, as a paper can be, and yet, if the *Nation* supports Cleveland after his behavior as to civil-service reform, a good many of us will be convinced that its real concern is not for that reform at all, but for the tariff. Vermont is a small State, but his hypocrisy in the matter of civil-service reform has been shown nowhere more evidently than here, and in view of the case elsewhere that is saying much. I never had any interest in a public office; never was a protectionist; shall never vote for either Blaine or Cleveland; but I have a citizen's care about saving the frame of Government itself before settling the tariff."

Our readers will bear us witness that we have not sought and do not seek to minimize the shortcomings of the Administration in the matter of civil-service reform. We acknowledge, too, at the outset, that a reformer has more reason to complain in Vermont than in most other States, the offices there having been handed over to a very objectionable editorial "Boss," who has played ducks and drakes with them among a more than usually disreputable lot of Democratic politicians—for Vermont, being a small State, does not produce Democrats in any great variety. There are but few of them who do her any credit.

We admit all this, and a great deal more. But what then? In politics, as well as in religion, one's duty does not end with prayer, or praise, or confession, or profession. After all the talk, all the criticism, all the denunciation, the necessity for action still remains. Everything we say or anybody says about politics is, in short, intended not so much to edify men about the art of government or the nature of the state, as to influence their votes at the election. Journalists do not address their readers as students of political philosophy, but as men who have it in their power once in two years to say who shall legislate for the United States, and once in four years to say who shall be their Executive. And the question which is submitted to every sensible man to-day, is not how to express through his vote views on government or morals, because voting is a very imperfect way of doing this, but how to provide the United States with the best government possible under existing circumstances. We went over this ground a good deal in 1884. The situation has not since then greatly changed, and it is not likely to change. We advise no one to vote for Cleveland who thinks he can do better—and by doing better we do not mean casting a vote for somebody as a token of admiration or esteem, but contributing to the election of somebody who, all things considered, will make a better President than Cleveland. If our correspondent knows of any such candidate, and really believes that in voting for him he would be performing an act of government, and not simply expressing an emotion, then, by all means, he should support him.

Our own reason for thinking that he knows no such person, and is not likely to know him, can be stated in very brief compass. In the first place, although we admit that Mr. Cleveland has in the matter of civil-service reform fallen far short of his promises, he has as a matter of fact done far more for it than any of his predecessors. If he had made no promises, in fact, we should all be disposed to look on him without question or qualification to-day as the champion who was likely to give the spoils system its deathblow. No man, for instance, who has filled the Presidential chair since Jackson's day would have listened for one moment to the suggestion that the New York Post-office should be taken out of politics, or would have kept the Custom-house in its present comparatively neutral condition, or postponed the removal of the great bulk of officers to the end of their term, or extended in any degree the application of the rules, or have so steadily used his veto to oppose Congressional jobbery and extravagance. Not one, too, has kept the White House and its purlieus so free from the small scandals which worked so much disgrace in the days of Grant, Hayes, Garfield, and Arthur.

In fact, while deploring as deeply as any one the President's departures from the standards set up by himself, our sincere belief is that the wideness of these departures has been hidden from him, by the extent to which his time and strength are devoted in Washington to resisting attempts to wring from him concessions of a far worse character than anything the reformers have had to reproach him with. These attempts are incessant. They begin at sunrise, and they end only at midnight. They are infinite in variety, and of every degree of baseness, and are frequently made by men whose hypocrisy and persistence in humbug the public never suspects, and his disgust for whom the President, in deference to the public, has to conceal. And it is not unnatural that a man who has to pass through this ordeal daily, and keep his own secret, should prove more or less unmindful of the unfortunate effect on the public mind of the abuses which he does not attempt to stay, and by the antics of the rogues whom, in weariness, or hopelessness, or delusion, he allows to run.

Anyhow, no matter what we may think of President Cleveland, we have to choose this summer between him and somebody else. At this writing we do not know who that somebody will be. Our belief is, that in the present condition of the Republican party he is certain to be either somebody whom the party can by no possibility elect, or somebody whom it will try to elect simply as a substitute for Blaine, and who will be pledged, if elected, to give Blaine the place and power in the Administration which he lost through Garfield's death. We advise any anxious civil-service-reformer, therefore, to consider carefully, before deciding not to vote for Cleveland, the kind of men who now lead the Republican party and manage its conventions; to consider their attitude towards the spoils system, and the nature of their criticisms on President Cleveland's shortcomings, and then to study their practice when last in power under Garfield. Any one who will give himself the trouble to examine the records of the uses which Garfield and Blaine made of public office between March 4 and July 2, 1881, will, we are sure, rise up almost, if not quite, cured of any nausea which President Cleveland's inconsistencies may have caused him, especially when he remembers that the party in power was not changed in that year.

In short, to sum up, if we saw the smallest chance of Cleveland's being opposed by any one who would carry out, or come anywhere near carrying out, the pledges Cleveland made in 1884, we should not be prevented by any concern for the tariff from supporting him, because we know well that tariff reform is not within the President's reach, while civil-service reform is. But we see no prospect of anything of the kind. In the present condition of the Republican party we see no possibility of it. If the Convention nominates a fit man at Chicago, it will be with the intention of "knifing" him; if it nominates a bad one, it will be with the view of using his clothes to disguise the well-known features of James G. Blaine.

SENATOR FRYE ON THE FISHERY TREATY.

A TIMELY warning was given to the Fishery Union and to Senator Frye by the vote in the House on Thursday to put fish on the free list and to establish general reciprocity with Canada. This vote was taken on an amendment offered by Mr. Breckinridge of Kentucky to an amendment offered by Mr. Dingley of Maine. Mr. Dingley's amendment was offered to the lumber section of the Tariff Bill. It excepted from the provisions of the bill the lumber of any country which denies to our fishing vessels the same rights that we accord to their fishing vessels—a very captivating suggestion, but hardly germane to the duty on lumber. Mr. Breckinridge offered his amendment as stated, but said that if it were adopted by the House, he should still vote against the amendment as amended. The House adopted Mr. Breckinridge's amendment, and then rejected the whole.

We say that this was a timely warning to the Fishery Union, and to all stirrers-up of strife between this country and Great Britain. And here we refer particularly to the speech of Senator Frye on the treaty, which has been

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

heralded as an unanswerable vindication of our rights, and which we find to be a boisterous arraignment not merely of the present treaty and the negotiators thereof, but of all former fishery treaties and the negotiators thereof, and especially those of 1818, 1854, and 1871. They are all in the same boat, according to Mr. Frye—all of them surrendered our rights, all of them were unpatriotic and cowardly. Not one treaty ought to have been signed. All of them truckled to Great Britain, and the two last mentioned, those of 1854 and 1871, betrayed our own people by admitting Canadian fish free of duty. When Senator Morgan reminded him that our fishermen were still more betrayed by the Republican party, which had passed a bill in 1870, that is still in force, admitting fresh fish free of duty—this being independent of any treaty—Mr. Frye replied that that act ought to be changed, although he contended that at the time it was passed the art of freezing fish and keeping them fresh so that they could be shipped to distant parts of the country had not been invented—as though that could make any difference with the principle involved. We remark in passing that frozen fish from Canada were plentiful in markets as far distant as St. Louis in the very year that a Republican Congress voted to admit such fish free of duty. The invention of refrigerator cars is perhaps of later date, but the invention of wooden boxes packed with ice and sawdust, for carrying fresh fish, is considerably older. But we suppose that Mr. Frye would not contend that it is right to give the States on the Canadian border privileges in the matter of fresh fish which are denied to other parts of the country.

A tirade directed against all the fishery treaties that we have ever had, whether negotiated by Democrats or by Republicans, has the merit of impartiality at any rate. Concerning the Treaty of 1818 Mr. Frye says: "We deliberately surrendered our fishery rights, and a blow was dealt at that industry from which it has never recovered." Let us "stick a pin" there. If the Treaty of 1818 was a surrender of our rights, the abrogation of the Treaty of 1871, on our motion, caused that Treaty of 1818 to revive, did it not? We have not yet abrogated it, although there has been some talk of giving notice to that effect. Great Britain does not hold the doctrine that treaties are perpetually binding upon the signatories. But until notice of abrogation is given, the Treaty of 1818 certainly is binding. Now we are living under a treaty which, according to Senator Frye, is a deliberate surrender of our fishery rights. What should we do, then, but try to get better terms? It is not much to the purpose to scold Richard Rush and Albert Gallatin and President Monroe, and the Senate that ratified the Treaty of 1818. If they made a bad bargain for us, it would seem to be the dictate of reason to try and get a better one. Certainly, the treaty which Mr. Frye wants to reject is a better one in some particulars. It cannot be worse, according to his description of it, although, as he has Secretary Bayard within reach of his stick, while Rush and Gallatin are not so handy for the purpose, he makes it appear that there is much less excuse for the former than for the two latter.

The recklessness of some of Mr. Frye's statements is quite inexplicable. He said, for example, that the negotiators of the present treaty never consulted with anybody who was familiar with the fishery question. Being asked by Senator Payne whether Mr. Putnam, one of the negotiators, was not acquainted with the fishery question, he pronounced a high eulogium upon that gentleman, and said that he (Frye) had once recommended him to a Republican President for Circuit Judge of the United States, and that Senator Hoar had joined in the recommendation, but he added: "I do not admit that Mr. Putnam was a man who knew more about the New England fisheries than any other man; and in the presence of the treaty he agreed to, I deny it emphatically." Then Mr. Payne inquired whether Mr. Putnam had not been the counsel in the *David J. Adams* case. Yes, replied Mr. Frye, but that was only a case concerning the right to buy bait. Mr. Putnam might be a good bait lawyer without knowing much about the headland doctrine. In short, Mr. Frye's sweeping insinuation that our negotiators knew nothing about the fishery question crumbled at a touch.

We do not find in Senator Frye's speech the broad doctrine that is laid down in the Senate Committee's report, that the fishery question is not a proper subject for treaty negotiation at all; but his argument runs that way, for if all our treaties have been disgraceful and ruinous, whether made by Republicans or by Democrats, and if even our own legislation on the subject of fish duties has been bad, although we have only found it out within a short time, the case is truly desperate. We had best abrogate all our treaties and repeal all our laws relating to fish, enter at once upon the state of nature, and see what that will do for us.

THE FRENCH CRISIS.

PARIS, June 1, 1888.

THE political aspect of Europe has not been for many years as dark as it is now; and the uncertainty of the future is greater than I have ever known it to be. This uncertainty is owing to several causes, but the most important of all is probably the sudden and, it may be said, unexpected development of a crisis in France which is as mysterious in its causes as it is in its character. I will not speak of the man who has personified this crisis, and who has declared open war on the present republican Constitution. His importance is derived, not from his character nor his services, but from his negative programme, and from the fact that he has become the head of all the malcontents. He is a cry rather than the head of a party, and in his followers are found members of the Commune and members of the Conservative parties. The old Duc de Broglie, father of the present Duke, who was very hostile to Prince Napoleon, afterwards the Emperor Napoleon, used to say that the Prince's programme, at the time when he threatened to make the *Coup d'État*, was a very simple one: "He says to the scamps: 'I am with you,' and to the honest people, 'I protect you against the scamps.'" He was justified by the fact that the *Coup d'État* of December 2 satisfied at the same time those who belonged to what was then called the party of order, and the Socialists who had erected barricades in June, 1849, and rebelled against the Chamber.

The coalition between the extreme Conservatives and the extreme Radicals is not a new fact in history: demagogy and dictatorship are not irreconcilable terms. Many of the Terrorists of 1793 became the most servile and violent Senators of Napoleon III. M. Thiers said at the time when he was preparing to reconcile the Assembly of Versailles to Republican institutions: "The Republic will be Conservative or it will not exist." He brought over to his side many of the partisans of a constitutional monarchy. He acted on principles which are so clearly laid down in the 'France nouvelle' of Prévost-Paradol, a book which he had himself inspired before the end of the Empire. It seemed to many minds that there was no real difference between a Conservative republic and a Liberal monarchy—that all the organs of Government could be the same in the one and the other. The only difference was in the nature of the Executive power, or in its origin. The President-elect and the hereditary king were both the first magistrates of the country. This theory made many converts. The Assembly, however, had a preference for a monarchy, and replaced M. Thiers with Marshal MacMahon; but, the Comte de Chambord having shown no disposition for the rôle of a liberal king, the theory of M. Thiers triumphed, though he was no longer in power: a monarchical Assembly voted a republican constitution.

The "loyal essay" of the Republic, to use one more of M. Thiers's expressions, has now lasted for many years; and what has been its result? I will not enter into any criticism of the various administrations which have followed each other in rapid succession; I will only state bare facts. The power has been transferred from the Conservatives who accepted the Republic to the hands of more and more advanced Republicans; there has never been a movement of reaction, the movement has always been in the same direction. We have gone, so to speak, through different political strata, and never returned to the strata which were abandoned, till now we have arrived at a region which may be called the political substratum. The members of the old "Left Centre," the followers of M. Thiers, are as bitter in their denunciations of the men in power as the Conservatives.

If there were only two well-organized political parties, with their traditions, their defined programmes, the remedy would be obvious: France would do what England or little Belgium does—the balance of power would change its direction. But the case is different in France, and the very form of government is threatened, not only by the Monarchical and Bonapartist parties, but by the new Republican aspirants, who threaten to tear the Constitution in pieces, to suppress the Senate, and perhaps even the Presidency. The Constitution, once only attacked by the Monarchical party, is now attacked, and more vigorously, by thousands who still call themselves Republicans; and there lies, in my opinion, the greatest danger of the situation, viz., in the contempt shown in the Republican ranks for the Constitution, for the political law of the country.

The cry of "Dissolution—revision" means really the total destruction of the present state of things, and this is why the same cry is uttered by all who wish for a change, and their number is increasing every day, in virtue of a certain law of attraction and of imitation which is manifest in all communities. It

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

would be imprudent to prophesy any change in a particular direction; it would be equally imprudent to confide too strongly in the continuance of the present situation and in the perpetuity of the existing system. The nations of Europe are looking on France with feelings of distrust, and the pacific protestations of the successive administrations do not tend much to diminish this distrust, as these administrations are too short-lived and insecure. It may be said, also, that the Republicans act in power as if they did not feel in power and were still in opposition; they cannot conquer their old habits, their old instincts. What must be thought, for instance, of the resurrection of a "Société des droits de l'homme et du citoyen," which was formed a few days ago, with much ceremony, under the auspices of M. Ranc, an Opportunist, M. Clémenceau, the leader of the Radicals in the Chamber, and a certain M. Joffrin, who is a leader in the Municipal Council of Paris? Is not the Republic a sufficient guarantee of the rights of man? This society reminds people too much of the club of the Jacobins which governed the Convention; it is as foolish a resurrection as the new Bastille which has been rebuilt on occasion of the centenary of 1789, and where you can, for twenty sous, see every day a representation of the escape of a prisoner. The new "Society of the Rights of Man" is not more serious than the new Bastille—these theatrical manifestations are almost childish. The Republicans have in their hands all the organs of government; they have the Executive, they have the majority in both chambers; why should they seem to distrust themselves? The new "Society of the Rights of Man" is nominally destined to prepare the means of resistance against any reaction and any dictatorship; it is intended to work against what is called "Boulangism." But it is a "telum imbelle sine ictu," and will do more good than harm to Boulangism, as the great majority of the nation abhors the memories of 1793: Jacobinism is not the modern name of Republicanism.

The situation in France is one element of uncertainty in Europe; the health of the Emperor of Germany is another. Divisions, rivalries, difficulties of all sorts are hidden for a moment, but they have not disappeared. When you enter a sick-room, you try to make as little noise as possible. The governments of Europe have obeyed the same sentiment. Since the accession of the new Emperor, the violent attacks of the Russian Panslavic press on Germany have ceased as if by enchantment; the Eastern question lies dormant; Prince Ferdinand is still in Bulgaria, and the threatened occupation of that country by a Russian and a Turkish army has not yet taken place. It seems as if, by common consent, the solution of all dangerous questions was to be postponed; but the present calm is only apparent—many things that are not said aloud may be said in whispers, and from time to time an incident reveals the dangerous character of the situation.

In her recent journey through Europe Queen Victoria saw the Emperor of Austria and Prince Bismarck, and it is impossible not to be struck with the fact that since her return the question of the defences of England and of the increase of her navy has assumed unexpected proportions. It had seemed hitherto that England felt quite safe, and intended to look on the wars and revolutions in Europe like the wise man of Lucretius who regards the tempest from a high rock. The discussion between Lord Wolseley and Lord Salisbury has been the beginning of a more active policy. It is difficult to imagine a greater change than is manifested in the tone of the press in England at the present time as compared with their language a year ago. Italy is also alarmed about her coasts and her cities; and the Italian Chamber speaks of fortifying Leghorn, Naples, and Palermo. In Hungary we have had the incident of the speech of M. Tisza, which has created great emotion all through Europe. The Hungarian Minister has shown a great want of confidence in the men, whoever they may be, who will have charge of Paris during the exhibition of 1889, and who will have to protect the exhibitors, their goods, and their flags. Count Andrássy has tried to reduce this incident to a minimum, and the French Government has naturally accepted his friendly declarations; but such speeches as M. Tisza's are nevertheless like straws which show which way the wind blows.

The most important incident, however, of recent date has been the systematic isolation of Alsace-Lorraine, which results from the severe measures taken by the German Government against all travellers who wish to reside in the conquered provinces, or even to cross them. I confess my utter inability to explain these measures. In our time, with all our newspapers, and books, and telegraphs, it is no longer possible to separate a province from the rest of the world; the actual presence of a few foreigners in Alsace will make no great difference in the feelings of that province, even if these foreigners should all be French.

On the whole, there is a growing dissatisfaction felt everywhere; the burden of the armed peace is getting heavier and heavier. We approach the centenary of 1789. The monarchies of Europe refuse to celebrate with us an anniversary which reminds them not only of the downfall of a monarchy, but of long and bloody wars, of their capitals invaded, their armies defeated, their provinces lost. We might console ourselves with our isolation if we were satisfied with ourselves; but the strife of parties has never been so ardent and the absence of leading minds so much felt.

FROM NEW YORK TO MADRID.

MADRID, May 15, 1888.

IN going from New York to Spain one can plunge at once *in medias res* by taking one of the Mediterranean line of steamers which call at Gibraltar on their way to Italy. But the Horatian maxim is not a good one for travellers to follow. No expert tourist would care to be placed abruptly on the top of Mont Blanc and then walk down, because what would have been, on going up, an endless series of picturesque surprises, gradually leading to a climax of sublimity, must, on going down, prove so many disappointing degrees of an anti-climax. Similarly, in making a tour of Spain, it would be foolish to begin with Seville and Granada, instead of approaching these centres of local color from the north, by way of the semi-Spanish Bordeaux and the semi-French Madrid. And there is another cogent reason for taking this northern course: it enables one to cross the ocean on one of the new and comfortable English, German, or French steamers. It is not so much the superior speed and safety of these new steamers that speak in their favor as the superior arrangements for ventilation.

On the way from Paris to Bordeaux there is very little to see, except an abundance of gardens and fields, and peasants busy in them, and herds of sheep, and women doing their washing in the creeks, and occasional groups of trees remarkable for their abundant supply of the parasitic mistletoe. Bordeaux, like most French cities, resembles a copy of Paris made by a second-rate artist. The surroundings are uninteresting, and it must be a tiresome place to live in. Théophile Gautier remarks that at Bordeaux Spanish influences begin to assert themselves, and he states that most of the street signs are in two languages. This may have been true forty-eight years ago, when he wrote his book on Spain, but to-day one sees few Spanish signs. Possibly the railroad has changed this by bringing nearer the influence of Paris to neutralize that of the Spanish boundary. But the women of Bordeaux perhaps do indicate the presence of Spanish blood. They are not only prettier but more graceful than the Parisiennes. And there is another kind of foreign influence visible in Bordeaux, which ought to arouse the indignation of the chauvinists. Nothing strikes one more in the cafés of Paris than the yearly-increasing number of beer-drinkers. In Bordeaux, the home of French claret, this phenomenon appears still more incongruous. Of every five men I saw, four were drinking beer. Perhaps they have discovered that ordinarily there is more honesty in a glass of German beer than in a barrel of French wine. Yet the Bordeaux I drank at the hotel was both cheap and good.

Bordeaux has at present 221,000 inhabitants. Its port admits vessels of 2,500 tons, and has room for 190 of them. The city has a fair picture gallery, a library of 170,000 volumes, and an old opera-house which is considered the largest and best in the country outside of Paris. But there was no performance on the evening when I was there. Perhaps the greatest curiosity is the tower beside the Church of St. Michel, with twenty-two bells near the top. There is nothing strange about this end of the tower or the bells, but the other end of it contains a chamber of horrors which is absolutely unique. After receiving half a franc, a young woman takes a lantern attached to the end of a long stick, and precedes the visitor down a flight of stairs. Here, below the tower, is a circular chamber, along the wall of which are placed, in an *upright* position, about thirty or forty mummies—men, women, and children. They are not artificial mummies like those found in Egypt, but natural mummies, the soil beneath this tower having once possessed the mysterious chemical property (which it has now lost) of preserving human bodies in a state resembling leather. There they stand, exactly as Gautier described them half a century ago, with a gruesome realism worthy of Zola—the general killed in a duel, the woman who died of cancer, the negro woman, the baby who looks like a rubber doll, the boy whose clenched fists and agonized expression indicate that he was buried alive, etc. The young woman described these mummies and touched them with her stick and her hand as if they were so many alligator skins on exhibition.

As Bordeaux is not exactly a cool place in the middle of May, I was glad to get away and start for the Pyrenees. I expected that it would be cooler in the mountains, but was hardly prepared to find snow still lingering on some of the summits. The scenery in some places is grand, in others delightfully picturesque, but not sufficiently so to tempt the tourist to come and see it for its own sake. The road is a well-built one, and the engineers had many unusual difficulties to overcome. A peculiar property of many of the numerous tunnels is that while the train passes through them they become musical instruments, emitting a deep, hollow sound like that produced by blowing into a large empty bottle. At Irun, the first Spanish station, cars have to be changed, the Spanish rails being of a different gauge from the French—in order,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

it is supposed, to prevent any sudden invasion from France in case of war. Fontarabia, San Sebastian, and other interesting stations are passed, where one would like to linger for a few hours, but cannot unless he has unlimited time, as there is but a single train a day. Some amusement is afforded by observing, from the car-windows, the customs of the Spanish mountain peasants. Agriculture is still in that primitive condition in which women and cows are used as beasts of burden. I saw in one field a man pulling along a harrow, while two women held it down.

We were now in the country of the Basques, whose language is so unique and so difficult that, according to the legend, the devil gave it up in despair, having succeeded in mastering only three words in two years. I have since, however, met an English wine-merchant who says he can speak the Basque tolerably well, and that he does not consider it so difficult as Welsh. I had no opportunity to hear it spoken, as the only native in my coupé was a very intelligent and courteous Castilian, who gave me and a Frenchman a free lesson in Spanish, and much useful information. When I told him I had read 'Don Quixote' twice, I could see how I rose in his estimation. He and the other Spaniards, he said, read it all the time; and then, as if to show how much modern Spaniards have improved over their ancestors, he dwelt with much emphasis on the fact that, although now his books are read in every country, Cervantes was a poor man—emphasizing the *pobre* by striking his pocket repeatedly.

Burgos, the first Spanish city in the north, which no tourist can afford to miss, is, like most of these cities, reached at night. In the morning I was waked by a military band and procession passing beneath my window. The soldiers were dressed in loose red trousers and long blue coats. The band consisted of a dozen trumpeters, followed by a regular brass band. The trumpeters first played alone, whereupon the band took up the strain, and finally they all united, which produced an excellent effect. I had read so much about Spanish beggars that when I went out into the street I expected to be immediately surrounded by a dozen of them; but, to my surprise, I was not accosted half-a-dozen times during the whole day. I took a guide to show me the sights of the town, including the Cathedral, the ruins of the Cid's house, his bones, and other relics. On discharging him at lunch time I gave him three pesetas (60 cents), expecting him to remonstrate and demand at least twice as much. But he was most profuse in his thanks, and appeared to be so impressed by my extravagant generosity that when he casually met me in the afternoon, he actually offered to devote a few more hours to me without extra charge. Obviously, Burgos was destined to overthrow all my preconceived notions regarding Spain.

The lion of Burgos is, of course, the Cathedral, which differs from most Gothic cathedrals in having been actually finished, and differs, moreover, from other Spanish cathedrals in being more impressive from without than from within, although its effect would be immensely heightened if it stood on the top instead of at the bottom of the hill. The charm of the interior lies less in the architectural features than in the great profusion of marvellous sculptured ornaments, executed with extraordinary finish. Many of the houses in the city are painted, and in such gaudy colors that De Amicis exclaims, with pardonable exaggeration: "If there were an insane asylum for painters at Burgos, one would say that the city had been colored some day when its inmates had escaped." But these lively colors do not conceal the fact that Burgos is a dead city, whose greatness lies in the memories of the past. There did not appear to be enough people to fill the houses and the streets, although the day I spent there was a holiday, when many peasants in picturesque costume visited the city. From the way they stared at me I concluded that a stranger in those parts is indeed a stranger. HENRY T. FINCK.

Correspondence.

MR. H. C. LEA AND THE COPYRIGHT BILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I think that you will agree with me that you owe me an apology—if not for my satisfaction, at least for the sake of consistency with your own standard of conduct.

In arguing against the Chace Copyright Bill, in the *Nation* of January 5, you were pleased to single me out for special animadversion. I was quoted as the representative of "the projectors and defenders of the bill," and the effort was made to deduce, from what I had urged in its support, that "the whole design and purport of the bill" was simply to enable American publishers to charge upon reprints "double or treble the price of the original English edition." The inference was unavoidable that, in advocating the bill, as I had done, as a measure of justice to American authorship, I was acting in bad faith, and was concealing my real object—in your own words, my argument was "a transparent pretence." To be sure, any one familiar with the subject could see that the contention of the *Nation* was a trifle absurd, but it answered the purpose of bringing the bill, and its "projectors and defenders," into contempt.

Since then, the changes made in the bill have been disadvantageous to both American and foreign authors. I did not approve of them, but assented to them in the interest of harmony. Yet, when thus modified for the worse, the *Nation* of May 17 says of it: "It is not, as has been often remarked, by any means the kind of bill which some of the earliest and most active friends of international copyright would like to see, but it has the immense and overwhelming merit of being an acknowledgment of the right of foreigners to the enjoyment of literary property on American soil." I have no doubt that you share my regret that "the immense and overwhelming merit" of the bill was not as clearly visible to you in January as it is in May.

Differences of opinion as to the details of so comprehensive and important a measure as this are inevitable, but it is the part of wisdom in those who are coöperating for a common object to harmonize such differences as far as possible; and it is, to say the least, a blunder to attribute unworthy motives to allies with whom one may happen to differ on points of policy. The *Nation*, I may say, was the last source from which I had a right to expect such treatment.

The bill is not, in all respects, what I would have made it had I been an autocrat, but I believe it to be the best attainable measure. I have had some experience in both politics and business, and at an early stage in the movement I made up my mind as to what was practicable, and how its accomplishment had best be attempted. This I have pursued undeviatingly, at considerable expenditure of time and labor, and without any personal interests to subserve. I found myself placed in opposition to those whose zeal at first blinded them to the fact that statesmanship consists in doing what we can, even if we cannot do all that we want, and in not throwing away the substance to grasp at the shadow. I was thus exposed to misconstruction on the part of many whom I was endeavoring to serve, but who, I believe, now recognize that I have been true to my convictions, and that I was not as much mistaken as they thought me to be. I imagined that the *Nation* knew enough of me not to join in imputing to me wrong motives, and in this I was disappointed. It is for the *Nation* to say whether it can afford to leave the imputation unretracted.—Very respectfully,

HENRY C. LEA.

PHILADELPHIA, May 30, 1888.

[We doubt if our readers discovered in the article to which Mr. Lea takes exception any imputation on his honest desire for an international copyright law. But as he seems to feel that such a construction is possible (a circumstance which we sincerely regret), we hasten to disclaim any intention to insinuate wrong motives upon his part, and to affirm our belief in the entire sincerity of his endeavor to secure legislation to amend the present copyright law for the benefit of foreign authors, as well as for the protection of American authors. But, as Mr. Lea very truly says: "Differences of opinions as to the details of so comprehensive and important a measure as this are inevitable"; and as the importance of these differences must be in proportion to the comprehensiveness and momentousness of the original proposition, we believe that the greatest possible latitude should be given to the discussion of them. The quotations made by Mr. Lea do but scant justice, we think, to the arguments used in the article to which he refers, and we take the opportunity to briefly recapitulate the chief points of difference.

The single purpose of a so-called international copyright bill is to extend, as a simple matter of justice, the protection of our copyright laws to the works of foreign authors when these are brought into the United States. In framing a law designed to secure this end, therefore, there is no need to take into consideration the possible effect of its practical operation as regards the interests of any other class of persons. The bill drawn up by the Authors' Copyright League is a good example of a bill having this single end in view, and it contains, of course, neither the stipulation of American manufacture nor the prohibition of importation. It may be admitted, however, that the operation of an international copyright law would affect, in a greater or less degree, the interests of other persons besides foreign authors, more especially those of the American book-buying public and the American publishers, together with the adjuncts of the latter—the printers, type-setters, etc.; but the interests of all these classes, we firmly believe, would be served by the passage of an unrestricted bill similar to that just named. Mr. Lea, however, assumes that a bill so framed would not protect American publishers from possible loss of work due to the manufacture outside of the United States of the books written by foreign authors, and he reasons that, "in considering the expediency of the condi-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

tions to be imposed on foreign authors admitted to the benefits of American copyright, this is a consideration which legislators cannot overlook." And it may with entire truthfulness be said of the "Chace" bill (which Mr. Lea is said to have drawn up), that its "whole design and purport," as distinguished from the authors' bill referred to above, is to insure, in Mr. Lea's own words, "the manufacture, by our own people, of all copyrighted books for our markets;" for as regards the property security granted the foreign author, that is sought to be obtained in both bills by *absolutely identical legislation.* Mr. Lea provides for such American manufacture with autocratic simplicity. He proposes to make the very protection of the foreign author's property, which it is the purpose of an international copyright law to secure to him, contingent upon the printing of his book in this country; and, to make his proposed measure more efficient, he adds an absolute prohibition of any importation of the author's original edition.

Our present copyright law permits the American author, if he prefers to do so, to have his book manufactured abroad, but, in order to discourage such subtraction from the business of the American book manufacturer, the former is made to pay a tariff tax of 25 per cent. upon the price of his book. This tariff protection the publisher would have, of course, equally as against the foreign author, in case of an international copyright; but that it is not large enough to give him entire advantage over the cheaper production possible in Europe is shown by the fact that some American authors even now have their books printed and bound abroad, and, after paying the duty, they are still able to sell them at a price as low as that asked for similar books made in the United States. As it would not do, at this stage of enlightened opinion, to propose to enlarge the publishers' protection by increasing the tariff on books, the alternative chosen was the complete removal of competition by the prohibition of importation.

The contention of the *Nation* of January 5, which Mr. Lea characterizes as being a "trifle absurd," was that these stipulations—compulsory manufacture in the United States, together with absolute non-importation—would secure to the American publisher of foreign books such perfect, non-competitive monopoly as would enable him to force the American reader to choose "either to go without the book, or to pay for the American reprint of Tennyson's next poem double or treble the price of the original English edition." As Mr. Lea himself says, with much force, in his statement before the Senate Committee on Patents: "Any form of copyright which shall convert into a monopoly the existing free competition in the reproduction of new foreign works, will greatly raise the price of current literature. It will not be the mere addition of the sums paid to authors, but it will be the highest price which the business sagacity of the holders of the copyrights shall consider likely to bring in the largest profits. This is an axiom so self-evident that it need only be alluded to."

Mr. Lea's argument is, that there must be compulsory printing in the United States, and importation must be shut off, else the English authors will have their books manufactured in England, where, he admits, printing and binding are much cheaper than in this country; and as they "can be freighted across the ocean at a trivial cost," the result, according to his reasoning, will be that "the prices to consumers here will be on a level with the high rates customary in England."

What are these high rates, and how do they compare with the prices of books in America? The *Publishers' Weekly* for the first half of 1887 records the titles and prices of 1,354 American bound volumes. Of this number, only 11 were published at a price of 25 cents or less, while 61 were priced 50 cents, and there were 100 in all at 50 cents each or less. Between $2 and $5 each, there were 434, of which number 87, or fully 20 per cent., were published at the highest price. In England, during the same period, the London *Bookseller* indicates the publication of 346 volumes ranging in price from 6d. to 1s., and 455 volumes at 1s. 3d., 1s. 6d., 1s. 9d., or 2s. each—in all, 801 volumes at 48 cents or less per volume. Of books published at prices from 8s. to 21s. (the nearest English equivalents to our $2 and $5), the number was 594, and of this number 218 volumes were novels at 10s. 6d. per volume. Out of this total number only 27 volumes, or about 4½ per cent., were priced at 21s. While, therefore, in the United States there were only 100 volumes below 51 cents in price, to 434 published between $2 and $5, in England there were 801 of the lower range of prices to 594 of the higher—a showing decidedly in favor of English low prices. Only bound volumes were considered, all the cheap reprints of English novels in this country being thereby excluded. Want of space forbids our dwelling upon these figures, but they speak for themselves.—Ed. Nation.]

VON HOLST AND HIS CRITIC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his letter in to-day's *Nation*, Dr. von Holst intimates that I misquoted his remark as to the relative estimation of Senators and Representatives in the popular mind. If he had given his own version of the sentence in question, your readers could have judged for themselves whether I had done him an injustice, and it would have been unnecessary for me to trouble you with these lines. Even so, however, I need only refer to the letter of "A. B. H." (printed in the *Nation*, No. 1188, p. 280), where Dr. von Holst's own words are quoted in the original, with a sufficiently close translation.

In order to traverse the assertion of Dr. von Holst, made twice in his letter, that I do not understand his article, it would be necessary to cite much greater portions of the article itself than I could reasonably ask you to make room for; but I am content to allow this question to be decided along with the one first referred to—that is, if I have misquoted the Professor, I will admit that I have misunderstood him; if not, not.

Dr. von Holst further says that, with regard to the President's share in the legislative power, I prove myself unable to distinguish between a *fact* and the *theory of the law.* If, in regard to the veto power of the President, there be a distinction between the actual facts and the theory of the law, it seems to me that any discussion of constitutional questions, in order to have a practical rather than a merely academic or historical value, must rest on facts in preference to theory. In other words, the Constitution as it is, rather than the Constitution as the fathers supposed it would be, is the topic that I imagined the Professor took for his theme.

The reasons which Dr. von Holst gives, in his article, for believing that the Senate will never be shorn of its power *fail* to convince me, partly because I am sceptical of political prophecies, partly because it seems to me that the Senate is steadily falling in the popular estimation, and that when an institution no longer possesses the respect of the people, its days are numbered, and its functions will transfer themselves, in the natural course of events, to a worthier instrument. N. Z.

New York, June 7, 1888.

MATTHEW ARNOLD AND FRANKLIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A paper in the last *Century* cites again the oft-quoted passage in which Matthew Arnold tells how he was delivered from the bondage of Franklin's victorious common sense by the perusal of a proposal of the sage for a new and more pleasing version of the Book of Job in modern English. It is strange that no patriotic Philadelphian has called attention to the injustice done by the greatest English critic to the "greatest American" by using him to point the moral of this particular tale. Any one who will turn to the original passage in Franklin's works will see at once that the entire proposal is an outrageous satire on the British Government, and was never intended to be taken seriously. It would appear that, even in those primitive times, "American humor" was already too subtle for the most flexible British intellect.—I am, sir, yours, etc.,

Paul Shorey.

Bryn Mawr, June 4, 1888.

THE FREE EXERCISE OF RELIGION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to call attention to a matter of grave constitutional importance, in connection with the Contract Labor Act of February 26, 1885, as interpreted by the recent decision of the case of the United States vs. the Rector and Church Wardens of Holy Trinity Church.

In the free exercise of their religion, the Christians of Holy Trinity Church called the Rev. E. W. Warren *from England to minister* to their spiritual wants as a clergyman. Before Mr. Warren left his native home and country, they contracted to pay him a proper remuneration. They believed that the laborer was worthy of his hire, and he believed that he was commissioned to preach to all nations. The United States Circuit Court in New York city has decided that the Contract Labor Act makes the said contract illegal and void, and makes the action of Holy Trinity Church punishable by a penalty of $1,000, both being prohibited thereby.

If this decision be correct, Congress has constitutional power to prohibit every church in the country from contracting with any clergyman, missionary, or revivalist abroad to come here to preach the Gospel to its members. This I deny. Supposing that Congress can prohibit the importation of laborers under contract in ordinary cases, it can never do so in cases in

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

which such prohibition interferes with the free exercise of religion. Such interference is expressly prohibited by the United States Constitution, Amendment 1st, which reads: "Congress shall make no law for the establishment of religion, *or prohibiting the free exercise thereof.*" The Contract Labor Act is unconstitutional and void *in so far as it prohibits the free exercise* of religion. Holy Trinity Church proceeded in the free exercise of religion in calling Mr. Warren, and its action is lawful and rightful, anything in the Contract Labor Act to the contrary notwithstanding. Its members have a right to be spiritually ministered unto by the Rev. Mr. Warren. The United States Government cannot deprive them of that right, as long as the above words of our written Constitution are not erased.

Not long ago, in Brooklyn, Plymouth Church called an English clergyman to be the late Mr. Beecher's successor. After due consideration, he felt it to be his duty to continue preaching the Gospel at home, but, if the act of Congress be valid, he could not have come at all under any express or implied contract for securing the subsistence of himself and his family.

There are numerous Hungarian, Polish, Italian, and other emigrants in the country, whose religious wants cannot be supplied unless clergymen speaking their own languages come to them from Europe. These emigrants can neither live, die, nor bury their dead, in a religious way, unless they are ministered unto in their own language. More of them are arriving every day, and more ecclesiastics are needed for them every day. If the act be valid, no ecclesiastic can be brought from Europe under any contract for his support, whether made by the newcomers or by our native citizens. A Greek church is to be erected in Chicago, for the support of which the Russian Government makes itself *partially* responsible. If the act be valid, no new priest can be sent from Russia on the death of an incumbent.

Nearly all churches in this country have intimate religious relations with churches abroad. Mr. Moody was appreciated as much in England as in his own country. But if he were an Englishman, he could not come here to preach, if Americans contracted beforehand to pay his expenses, unless the act of Congress be void in cases of religion.

If John Wesley were alive, the Methodist Church of this country could not ask him to come here to minister to his spiritual children, if they offered to pay his expenses and if the act be valid. If John Bunyan were alive, the Baptist Church of the United States could not secure his presence here, for similar reasons. Nay, if the Apostle Paul himself were alive, and if Americans asked him to visit the New World at their expense, he could not say to them as he once said to others: "I will come to you shortly, if the Lord will." If the act of Congress be valid, he would have to say that he must wait until Congress permitted him to come.

The opinion in the case will be found in the New York *Law Journal* of May 24, 1888. It makes no reference to the point of law herein discussed. It is, therefore, proper to call public attention to so important a matter. This is done in the hope that when the appeal reaches the Supreme Court of the United States, the Contract Labor Act will be held to be unconstitutional and void in so far as it interferes with the free exercise of religion in Mr. Warren's case and all others.—Respectfully,

BRINTON COXE.

PHILADELPHIA, 1711 Locust Street, June 9.

THE VICE-PRESIDENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reference to an article on page 468 of the *Nation* of 7th inst.: Suppose the salary of the Vice-President of the United States be made larger than that of the President thereof; would the most proper person for President be likely to choose the office of President? X.

JUNE 11, 1888.

AN AMERICAN EGYPTOLOGICAL STUDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many of your readers will gladly learn that, with the kind coöperation of Prof. C. E. Norton, the head of the Archæological Institute, an American is already conditionally secured to aid in the explorations by the Egypt Exploration Fund of England and America. Mr. Farley B. Goddard, Ph.D., of the class of '81, Harvard, as is proposed, will pass a few months of study at the British Museum and the Louvre, aided by the Fund's officials who are also connected with those institutions, and then begin work in Egypt with Naville and Griffith, probably at one of the classical sites, for which Mr. Goddard is particularly qualified. This will entail an expenditure of $1,000, and I devise an "American Student Fund" (as there is a special student fund in England) for this purpose. Donors to it will go on the Fund's lists, receive the illustrated memoirs and annual reports, and be entitled to all the privileges of contributors to the general Fund. The Institute donates $100, and I earnestly beg for sums of $5 upwards to complete the requisite sum.

WM. C. WINSLOW,
Vice-Pres't and Hon. Treasurer.

525 BEACON STREET, BOSTON, June 9, 1888.

PRUDENTIALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: We have in Massachusetts the term used in our statutes, of "prudential affairs." Towns here are allowed to pass by-laws for the management of their "prudential affairs," and to impose a penalty not exceeding twenty dollars for a breach thereof. Our churches have also "prudential committees" for managing their secular business. My query is as to the origin of the word. In the laws, I trace it to our 'Body of Liberties,' in 1641. Can any one give me an earlier example of its use either in state or church affairs, either here or in England? In fact, I shall be obliged for any examples of its use in the seventeenth century. Was it used in other colonies?

It seems to bear the same relation to "prudent" that economy does to the various uses of that word and its derivatives. A man is "economical," but we speak of political "economy," and of bodies managing their "domestic economy."

W. H. WHITMORE.

BOSTON, June 9, 1888.

Notes.

JOEL MUNSELL'S SONS, Albany, will publish at once, if enough subscriptions are received, a Supplement by D. S. Durrie to his invaluable 'Index to American Genealogies.' It will fill forty pages and be sold for one dollar.

A 'Complete Volapük Dictionary,' in two parts, Volapük-English and English-Volapük, based on the last editions of Schleyer and Kerckhoff by Klas August Linderfelt, will be published directly by C. N. Caspar, Milwaukee. A new feature is the indication of the source of each of the world-language vocables, of which the English is said to furnish more than 60 per cent. The specimen pages show a very neat typography.

'The Black Arrow: a Tale of the Two Roses,' by Robert Louis Stevenson, with full-page illustrations by Will H. Low and Alfred Brennan, is about to be published by Chas. Scribner's Sons.

Harper & Brothers publish immediately 'The Russian Peasantry,' by "Stepniak"; 'The History of Nicholas Muss,' from the French of Charles du Bois-Melly; and 'Hymns and Tunes as Sung at St. Thomas's Church, N. Y.,' composed and adapted by George William Warren.

Whitaker & Co., London, are about to bring out a choice selection of the most popular poems and songs of Dr. Charles Mackay, the moral effect of which upon the author has seemed at times less lasting than upon his public—particularly during the war of the rebellion.

'Selections from Ruskin,' viz., from his 'Sesame and Lilies,' 'Queen of the Air,' and lectures on war, made by Edwin Ginn, will be added by Ginn & Co. to their "Classics for Children."

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press the complete works of Shelley, in prose and verse, edited by Richard Herne Shepherd in five volumes; a handy edition of the Brontë novels, uniform with the Dickens and the Thackeray; 'Half-Hours with the Best Foreign Authors,' translations selected by Charles Morris; 'A Popular History of Music, Musical Instruments, etc.,' by James E. Matthew, with numerous illustrations; 'Embroidery and Lace,' from the French of Ernest Lefebvre, also illustrated; 'An Elementary Treatise on Human Anatomy,' by Prof. Joseph Leidy; and 'Animal Life of the Sea-Shore,' with special reference to the New Jersey and Long Island coasts, by Prof. Angelo Heilprin.

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready the 'Life of Lord Herbert of Cherbury'; a 'Life of Emerson,' by Richard Garnett; Sir Stephen De Vere's 'The Odes of Horace'; and volume seven of Wilson's 'Tales of the Borders.'

Hachette & Cie. are about to bring out a 'Histoire de l'Art pendant la Renaissance,' by Eugène Müntz. The term art as here used is comprehensive of industries. The work will abound in biographical "monographs," and in some 500 illustrations of a high order, including a great variety of portraits and costumes. It will fill five octavo volumes of about 800 pages each, issued in weekly parts of sixteen pages at fifty centimes (or one franc when colored prints or phototypes are involved).

L'Art for May 15 still occupies itself mainly with the Salon, and this time with the sculpture, in which department, as M. Paul Leroi says, the French have nothing to fear from foreign rivalry—"in vain would one seek among the foreign exhibitors an artist without a peer"—whereas the French painters have no such preëminence to boast of. Jules Chaplain (with seventeen medallions) and Auguste Rodin (who exhibits but a single piece, a spirited portrait bust) receive highest praise; the work of a young woman, the "chastely passionate" group "Çacountala," executed by Mlle. Camille Claudel, is called "the most extraordinary novel work of the Salon." A sketch of it accompanies the text.

A new periodical, the *Revue de Famille*, has just begun its existence in Paris. It is under the direction of M. Jules Simon, with M. Louis Ulbach as assistant editor, and an attractive list of contributors, chosen from those authors who, if they do not always write unexceptionably for family reading, may at least be expected to

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

do so upon occasion. The name of M. Jules Simon is a sufficient guarantee for the moral elevation and the literary excellence of this new "recueil littéraire et artistique." It will be published fortnightly, in the usual large octavo form, by Émile Testard & Cie.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for May opens with an account of the "Development of the Population of the United States," by Dr. R. Lüddecke. It is accompanied by a beautifully executed map with two insets, the one showing the distribution of the negroes, the other that of the foreigners. G. Rohlfs, the veteran African traveller, argues very forcibly against the use of elephants for the purposes of exploration. The present number contains Capt. van Gèle's report of his late expedition up the Ubangi in the *En Avant*, together with a map of his route.

In the double number 135,136 of the *Zeitschrift* of the Berlin Geographical Society, scholars will find a noteworthy supplement to Yule and Nicholson's article on Sir John Mandeville in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Dr. Albert Bovenschen collects a great many contemporary notices of Mandeville and his pretended book of travels, and then analyzes this work, assigning with great particularity the sources of the patchwork. His paper is entitled "Untersuchungen über Johann von Mandeville und die Quellen seiner Reisebeschreibung." In summing up, even less originality and authenticity is allowed to Mandeville than by the learned Englishmen above named. The rest of the number is devoted to the rainfall of the Iberian peninsula, with a map.

The twenty-second instalment of the 'Geschichte der Deutschen Kunst,' issuing by Grote, Berlin (New York: Westermann), is still occupied with Painting. The illustrations, after the Holbeins, L. Cranach, Beham, Schongauer, etc., are of unusual excellence and interest.

We receive from the same firm the concluding parts (80–88) of the eighth volume of the admirable 'Allgemeine Weltgeschichte.' They deal with Europe in the middle and end of the seventeenth century, the age of Louis XIV., with whose death the narrative ends. The richness of this period in historic events and personages is perfectly reflected in the illustrations, chosen with exquisite regard for the reader's edification as respects men, manners, arts, scenes, and engagements of note. In this particular, as in the authenticity of its text, the work continues to be a model.

The 'Annual Register' for 1887 (Rivingtons) has made its appearance, extending the useful series to which it belongs. We have little to remark upon it, save that we see no reason why the analysis allowed in the table of contents to current events in English history should be denied to those in foreign countries. The present volume offers a very good illustration of this defect. In the six chapters devoted to Great Britain, we may name the new rules of Parliamentary procedure, the passage of the Crimes Bill and the Land Bill, the Queen's Jubilee, the Trafalgar Square riots, the Plan of Campaign imprisonments, and yet have mentioned no event comparable in importance to President Grévy's forced resignation and the Boulangist dictator's progress, or to President Cleveland's tariff message, none of which appear in the table of contents under the bare rubrics "France" and "United States." While repairing this neglect of the table, we think it would be well to emphasize with type the *leading* events. In this, human foresight will of course sometimes be at fault, but that will not matter. There is in this issue the usual chronicle of incidents, summary reviews of literature, art, drama, science, etc., and obituary with an alphabetical index.

We have delayed too long a mention of Mr. W. W. Cook's timely legal *brochure* on 'Trusts, the Recent Combinations in Trade' (L. K. Strouse & Co.). One may get from this an intelligible notion of the different varieties of this noxious fungus, and of the legal considerations which are applicable to it. There is also a considerable citation of cases.

"Dickens vulgarized" is all we can say of the "Dickens Aquarelles" which come to us in a neat portfolio from J. W. Bouton. This set of characterizations is in illustration of the 'Pickwick Papers,' and is in no sense admirable as art or as imagination. "Stylus's" first series ought to be his last, for he has mistaken his vocation. The designs being hand-painted, the edition is limited.

Refinement cannot be predicated, either, of "*Puck's* Opper" (Keppler & Schwarzmann), a portfolio of designs by this well-known delineator of such humor as lurks in violent action and reaction, in Chinese, Jews, negroes, tramps, policemen, country boarders and rural life, horse-car amenities, delirium tremens, etc.

From the Bufford's Sons Lithographing Establishment we have a life-size head of Gen. Sheridan. The portrait is in profile, and the drawing is spirited and free.

The thirty-seventh meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science will be held at Cleveland August 15–21. The local secretary is Elroy M. Avery, Ph.D., 407 Superior Street.

A special session of the School of Philosophy will be held at the Hillside Chapel, in Concord, Mass., Saturday, June 16, commencing at ten A. M., and will consist of an Alcott memorial service. There will be no other session of the School the present summer.

—There can be no doubt of American participation, of a very glad and spontaneous kind, in the projected memorial to the late Mrs. Craik, author of 'John Halifax, Gentleman,' of "Philip, my King," and of so many other writings, in prose and verse, for the elevation and cheer of all who read. A marble medallion in Tewkesbury Abbey, England, is contemplated. "Tewkesbury," reads the circular before us, "was the place selected by Mrs. Craik as the home of 'John Halifax, Gentleman,' and it was the last place visited by her before her death." The church is a noble one, well kept, and well calculated for the good display of a mural monument. It is proposed to limit the American subscriptions to five dollars as a maximum, and a list on this basis has already been begun. Sums of any amount will be received by Mr. Joseph W. Harper of Harper & Bros., New York. In London, Mr. A. Macmillan, 29 Bedford Street, Covent Garden, is the recipient. The English membership of the committee having the memorial in charge is, as might have been expected, very distinguished.

—The twenty-third volume (T-Ups) of the Encyclopædia Britannica (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is characterized by a remarkable richness of subject-matter, although, perhaps, affording less light reading than the majority of its predecessors. Among the technical articles that appeal almost wholly to the specialist are Tables (mathematical), by J. W. L. Glaisher; Thermodynamics, by Prof. P. G. Tait; Tides (twenty-eight pages), by Prof. G. H. Darwin, and Trigonometry, by E. W. Hobson. Somewhat less technically treated are the articles: Telegraph, Telephone (both by Thomas Gray), and Telescope, the last, from the pen of the astronomer David Gill, covering twenty pages. We notice that Prof. Tait, in his treatment of Thermodynamics, makes no mention—not so inexcusable in this place—of the name of Tyndall, a peculiarity, if we mistake not, which also marks the article Light (vol. xiv.), by the same authority, and that on Heat (vol. xi.), by Sir William Thomson. The reason of this omission will probably be apparent to those who are acquainted with the Thomson-Tait-Tyndall literature of some twenty-five years ago. The only zoölogical articles of significance are those on Trematoda (by Hoyle) and Tunicata, the latter a satisfactory treatment of an obscure group of animals by the well-known authority on this subject, Prof. Herdman. His conclusion that the Tunicata represent a degenerate group of the Chordata, rather than an advanced type of the Mollusca, will probably be accepted by most zoölogists. In the article Taste, by Prof. M'Kendrick, emphasis is laid upon the necessity of separating from that sense the perception of flavor, a quality which really belongs to the sense of smell. Thus, it is alleged that, blindfolded and with the nose firmly closed, we cannot distinguish between the "tastes" of an apple and an onion, or between red and white wines, a relation generally overlooked, but which received much fuller treatment at the hands of an American writer, Mr. Henry T. Finck, in an article published in the *Contemporary Review* about a year ago. Among the more important articles of general interest may be mentioned Theism and Theology (both by Prof. R. Flint), Theosophy (by Prof. Seth), Trent (Council of), Theatre, and Typography, the last covering thirty pages, and being very useful for reference by reason of its typographical illustrations. The biographical notices include among others the names of Talleyrand, Jeremy Taylor, Thackeray (by Walter H. Pollock), Thales, Thiers, Thucydides (by Prof. Jebb), and Turner. Mr. Reid of the Royal Scottish Academy, the author of the last-named notice, furnishes a less extravagant biography of the distinguished painter than many who have undertaken the task of glorification before him, yet holds that, as a water-colorist, Turner was "unquestionably the greatest master in that branch of art that ever lived." Thoreau is characterized as "one of the most strongly marked individualities of modern times."

—Among the special geographical and historical articles may be enumerated Tibet (by Gen. Walker and Terrien de Lacouperie), Troad (Prof. Jebb), Turkestan (Prince Krapotkin), Turkey, and the United States. These, as well as others not here indicated, are in part singularly defective, a weakness distinctive of this branch of literature of the 'Britannica.' We have already had occasion to point out such anomalies as that under neither "France" nor "Germany" does the name of Moltke occur. In the article Tonk-King in the present volume the whole of Paul Bert's connection with the protectorate is dismissed with a single line, wherein mention is merely made of his death. All the events of Turkish history that have occurred since the close of the Berlin Congress are disposed of in six lines, and although the kidnapping of Prince Alexander of Battenberg is referred to, no mention is made of his successor. The absence of an article on the Thirty Years' War, which is in conformity with the rules of the 'Britannica,' is all the more regrettable from the meagreness with which the subject is treated under Germany and Austria. The article United States, the joint production of Prof. Alexander Johnston (history), Prof. J. D. Whitney (geography),

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and Gen. Francis A. Walker (statistics), covers just 100 pages, and is the *pièce de résistance* of the volume. Prof. Whitney, who in his portion of the article has devoted close attention to the geology, mineralogy, vegetation, and climate of our domain, apparently overlooked the faunal characteristics—a serious neglect in an extended treatment like the present one. In the pages of biography appended to the history of the United States, we notice that the date of the death of Pulaski is given as October 11, 1780, instead of 1779, and that the death of Taney is omitted. We find incidentally under "Universities" the statement that the Johns Hopkins University was founded in 1867; it was inaugurated in 1876. The minor geographical articles on American subjects are inadequate. The articles on astronomy and mathematics show perhaps as conclusively as anything else the arbitrariness of the editing. For example, one would consult "Trigonometry," content, perhaps, to ascertain what that science is, its history in outline, and the general method of development of its principles. Instead of that alone, the complex formulæ of analytic trigonometry are elucidated with the fulness of a compendious treatise. The article "Telescope" is excellent as far as it goes; but the treatment is insufficient and ill-balanced. There is no attempt to tabulate even the greater telescopes of nowadays, with their locations. As in all previous volumes, American work is signally ignored. The labors of the Clarks, *facile principes* of lens-makers, receive but the slenderest notice; while the details of some other telescope matters suggest the idea that the author's original MSS. must have been passed by some editor who, to get it into small compass, has made arbitrary excerption answer for careful condensation. "Time" and "Transit Circle" are nearer what one would expect in a general encyclopædia. We note the minutes of longitude of Paris from Greenwich misprinted 6 instead of 9. Chandler's new Almucantar, an instrument of great significance in the future of spherical astronomy, was certainly worth a half-dozen lines; but it is nowhere mentioned. All the astronomical illustrations are the muddiest of prints, and would do no credit to the pictorial department of an American daily.

—A new work by M. Alphonse Daudet is always something of an event, and the subject of his latest one adds to the usual interest. 'L'Immortel,' begun in *L'Illustration* for May 5, is the long-promised novel of which the subject is to be the French Academy and all that revolves around it and converges towards it. In the few numbers that have already reached us, the scene changes with bewildering frequency for every new group of characters introduced, and is often crowded with personages who, whether they are to be actors of the first importance or only characters of secondary or still less consequence, are all presented with that vivid reality with which M. Daudet imposes even his most extravagant creations upon his readers. That many of them—how many, we at this distance can only guess—should be skilfully varied reproductions of well-known people in Paris, will surprise no one who remembers the wonderful processions of scarcely disguised masqueraders which make the pages of 'Les Rois en Exil' and 'Le Nabab' resemble those paintings of the Italian Renaissance in which the princes and prelates and artists of the time look out from crowds of saints and angels, or troops of Oriental kings, in their very aspect as they lived. Among the many Academicians already introduced, the Immortal to whom the book owes its title is an old acquaintance of the reader of M. Daudet's 'Tartarin sur les Alpes,' the famous historian, Astier-Réhu, the *vir ineptissimus* of his German rival, Schwanthaler. Another old acquaintance, from 'Les Rois en Exil' this time, is the Princess Colette de Rosan, whose youthful widowhood is still buried in retirement with memories of her slaughtered husband, but whose lovely hair, which she sacrificed upon his grave, is growing long enough to curl becomingly around her pretty head, and whose thoughts are divided between the mausoleum of Herbert de Rosan which she is erecting, and the young architect Paul Astier, with whom she holds private consultations concerning it. Like most of M. Daudet's work, 'L'Immortel' is extremely lively, and full of the most amusing, ironical, and even comic touches; but it is bitterly and despairingly gloomy in its real spirit.

—Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* (vol. lx, Part 1) contains an important article on the origin of the English House of Commons by Dr. Ludwig Riess. He rejects the prevalent view—first advanced by De Lolme—that the primary object of the meetings of this body under Edward I. was to grant money. Such grants, he contends, did not become numerous or important until the reign of Edward III. The evidence afforded by the Statute Rolls, Rolls of Parliament, and contemporary chroniclers all militates against the theory that Edward I. surrendered his right to tax the commons. The celebrated "Articuli de tallagio non concedendo" of 1297 was nothing more than a proposition of the barons which the King rejected, and hence is not on the Statute Rolls. The "Confirmatio cartarum" of the same year is merely a renewal of article xii of the Magna Charta—a concession not to the commons, but to the barons and prelates only. It relates to feudal exactions ("auxilia," etc.), not to taxes that concerned the commons ("tallagia"). Edward I. created the House of Commons not as a legal instrument for the assessment of taxation, but for two wholly different purposes: (1) to facilitate local administration by enabling the commons to lay their grievances before him and his council, and thus to secure redress; (2) to aid him in executing his own measures, such as raising taxes and the like. Though Dr. Riess may err in some of his details, he presents, on the whole, a strong case, which students of this subject ought not to ignore.

—At last there is a prospect of our soon seeing in English the whole of the 'Rig-Veda.' As long ago as 1850, the late Professor H. H. Wilson of Oxford brought out the first volume of his translation of it, which was followed, in 1854 and 1857, by the second and third volumes, completing four out of the eight divisions of the entire work. In 1866, six years after the death of Professor Wilson, appeared the fourth volume, edited with great care and marked ability by Mr. E. B. Cowell, now Professor of Sanskrit in the University of Cambridge. The fifth volume, under the joint editorship of Professor Cowell and Mr. W. F. Webster, has just been published by Messrs. Trübner & Co. of London; and the sixth and concluding volume is announced as being already in the press. More than half the contents of the new volume is substantially the work of the editors; Professor Wilson having left in a most crude and fragmentary condition all of his translation that he did not live to print. "The aim of this translation," says Professor Cowell, "is to represent the traditional interpretation of the Rig-Veda, as given by Sâyana; and, consequently, but little attention is paid to the views of modern scholars. This work does not pretend to give a complete translation of the Rig-Veda, but only a faithful image of that particular phase of its interpretation which the mediæval Hindus, as represented by Sâyana, have preserved. This view is, in itself, interesting, and of an historical value; but far wider and deeper study is needed to pierce to the real meaning of these old hymns. Sâyana's commentary will always retain a value of its own, —even its mistakes are often interesting; but his explanations must not for a moment bar the progress of scholarship. We can be thankful to him for any real help; but let us not forget the debt which we owe to modern scholars, especially to those of Germany." Professor Cowell, with his usual thoroughness, has translated, in an appendix, the eleven deutero-canonical Vâlakhilya hymns, the Englishing of which would hardly have been expected from Professor Wilson, as is evident from his passing by other additions to the 'Rig-Veda' of a similar apocryphal character.

MAHAFFY'S GREEK LIFE AND THOUGHT.

Greek Life and Thought, from the Age of Alexander to the Roman Conquest. By J. P. Mahaffy. Macmillan & Co.

We may accept, with some amusement and, probably, with some allowance, the complaint of Prof. Mahaffy, that, under the influence of the taste for "pure scholarship," the period he treats of is no longer studied in England, either at schools "or by the superannuated schoolboy who holds fellowships and masterships at English colleges, and regards himself as a perfectly trained Greek scholar. A man may consider himself, and be considered by the classical English public, an adequate and even distinguished Greek professor, who has never read or even possessed a copy of Strabo, Diodorus, or Polybius, who has never seen the poems of Aratus, Callimachus, or Apollonius, and who does not know a single date in Greek history between the death of Alexander and the battle of Cynoscephalæ." In the United States, our own classical professor, we fancy, has not reached the luxury of such prejudices; in a land where he is still exposed occasionally to the scalping-knife of Mr. Charles Francis Adams and the other braves of his tribe, he cannot plead that he is fettered by traditions of "pure scholarship." But we experience the same difficulty in classical study which is doubtless felt at the English schools and universities —we are perplexed, as they are, by the abundance of our riches. While the scholar has no excuse for an antiquated eclecticism, the student is often obliged to waver between literature and history, or between different periods of history. If it is a question of periods, he prefers the fifth and fourth centuries B. C. to the third and second. If it is a question of literature, it is hard to leave out Thucydides for Polybius, or Xenophon for Arrian. It happens, moreover, that the more recent great historians, Grote and Curtius, do not reach the Alexandrian period; Finlay begins with the fall of Corinth and the final submission of Greece to the Roman power. Hence the ignorance of this important period which Prof. Mahaffy deplores, and which he has attempted to remedy by departing from the plan of his former work on Greek morals, and devoting a considerable space to the history and the literature of the age.

It is an epoch not so much of decay as of transformation. Wittingly or not, Alexander opened the door through which Greek culture and ideas wandered out into the world. Mace-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

donia, Asia Minor, and Syria, and, above all, Alexandria, succeed to the old inspiration and activity; Athens becomes a place of pilgrimage and a university town; Greece proper is either largely under Macedonian power, or perpetually swept by gusts of petty warfare and pillage, except when a portion of it rises into a temporary unity and importance under the Achæan league. If we examine all this fermentation and apparent degeneracy, we are struck most of all by the vast importance and the modernness of the ideas which it evolved. We meet with repeated instances of this in the pages of Prof. Mahaffy's fresh and interesting narrative.

We see, for example, philosophy really touching life for the first time, descending out of the clouds—as has been often said—ceasing to be the intellectual exercise of a coterie of select and speculative minds, and occupying itself instead with men's conduct, in the practical systems of Zeno and Epicurus. And not only does it come down to the earth, where Socrates wished it to dwell, but it makes proselytes; it spreads far and wide among the generality of the people, and becomes to them an ethical guide of life, such as their out-worn religion could not be, and, indeed, had never professed to be. As philosophy became democratic, and the long step was making from the aristocratic Plato to the porter of Alexandria, philosophers rose in importance and consideration. They associate with kings, and are honored by cities. They are expected to offer advice, and to administer rebuke or consolation, like the clergy of the present day. Diogenes uses his customary impudence on Alexander; Callisthenes, for years, before his fall, lectures him in season and out of season; and Zeno is intrusted with the keys of that city which a century before had noticed Socrates chiefly when it decided to put him to death. In Athens the philosophers found corporations, with an endowment and a legal succession; and the Academy of Plato becomes the germ and model of the schools in all parts of Greece, and of the college or university in every civilized land.

By far the most important of all these foundations was, of course, the Museum and Library of Alexandria, without which, however important Alexandria might have been as a commercial centre, the "Alexandrian Age," so called, would never have had an existence. It was to the court of the Ptolemies, in particular, that Greek culture earliest migrated, and it is to their fostering care that we owe the large inheritance we have received from the Alexandrian Age. Prof. Mahaffy gives a full account of the constitution of the Museum, and an interesting comparison of its workings with those of English universities. Unlike the universities of Athens, it was a royal foundation, and it had the defects and the advantages which spring from royal patronage. Prof. Mahaffy, who has always in mind the questions of our own day, thinks he sees a failure in the later achievements of this school because the "Fellows" began to undertake tutorial work instead of devoting themselves to research. Be that as it may, we can hardly complain of the labors of that group of learned men who, under the second Ptolemy, "sifted the wheat from the chaff and preserved for us the masterpieces of Greek literature in carefully edited texts."

Nor were the original productions of this same coterie by any means insignificant, as every one knows who is familiar with the period, and as several chapters in this work abundantly testify. Pastoral and idyllic poetry, the romantic novel of adventure, even the Pompeian decorations on our walls, have all filtered down to us from their inventive faculty and from the art by which they were surrounded. It was their literature (not that of the much greater age of Pericles) which inspired and awakened the best of the Roman poets; it was their Cupids and Venuses and Ariadnes which descended through generations of copyists to the frescoes of Pompeii. Æschylus and Sophocles discourage imitation, while Callimachus and Apollonius Rhodius provoke it; and so Virgil and Catullus condescended to translate and to borrow from them. In our own time, Mr. Morris has done exactly what Apollonius did for his contemporaries: each has told a tale on an antique model, into which he could not avoid letting slip a feeling and a tone that are distinctly modern. Just as our own pseudo-Chaucer, "the idle singer of an empty day," as he calls himself, drifts on with melodious languor and sadness that are entirely alien to the spirit of an heroic Orpheus or Jason; so Apollonius, while imitating in epic verse the episode of Nausicaa, gives a picture of the maiden love-struggles of Medea that is utterly unhomeric and unheroic, but is to us all the more valuable for its anachronism, because it marks a great transition, a phase in the history of woman, which every student of Greek life and manners will admit to be novel and full of importance. Few read Apollonius now; but his incident, his nice analysis, his delicacy, which the latest French novelist would call prudery, still gleam through the story of Dido in the 'Æneid.' The same strain of feeling was quite as fully represented by his great rival Callimachus, librarian, poet-laureate, and literary dictator of his circle, whom one is tempted to call the Dr. Johnson of his time, save that Johnson was a worse poet and a much better man. That dexterous versifier and courtier, whose hymn to Apollo was at once a satire on his rival and an encomium on his king, wrote the tale of 'Acontius and Cydippe,' which seems to have been distinctly a romance of love and adventure, and whose pattern was imitated in the 'Daphnis and Chloe' of the fifth century A. D., in various Italian and French romances, and in the 'Arcadia' of Sir Philip Sidney.

Now, these Alexandrian cupids, this picture of feminine passion which Apollonius so delicately and skilfully painted, these love stories whose peculiarities are still faintly echoed at the present day, were all undoubtedly made for women. What causes led to this novel status of woman in life and literature—whether it was due to Dorian influence in Alexandria, or to the example of the independent position of Egyptian women before the law, or to the court influence of powerful princesses—Prof. Mahaffy does not distinctly trace. He notices, however, what no student can fail to notice, the important part played by women in Plutarch's pictures of Spartan life and manners. He does not remark that, notwithstanding all the charms of such women as Chilonis and Agesistrata, notwithstanding their high spirit, their self-sacrifice and conjugal devotion, and their enormous influence with the Spartan men, which Aristotle wonders at and Plutarch repeatedly attests, they do not seem to have softened or humanized in the least the manners of their countrymen. The monotonous string of aphorisms which Plutarch records of these ladies simply mirrored the narrow and semi-savage military ideal of Lycurgus.

The critic who serves up a poet had better be something of a poet himself; otherwise he is likely to offer a Barmecide feast. Prof. Mahaffy does not exactly do this for Theocritus; his dissection is careful and complete, but it is a little dry. He does not, like Mr. Andrew Lang in his genial appreciation, give us something of the charm and flavor of that poet so much beloved of the poets; he does not make it clear that he was a man of genius among men of talent. He even speaks of him once as a "pedant," by which he means that he was a scholar and a deliberate artist; but he might as well apply the epithet to Tennyson, and much better to Browning. We note that the second Idyll is referred to as evidence of manners in Alexandria: the scene is laid in a city by the sea—it may be Syracuse; the poem itself decides nothing. We are inclined, also, to take exception to the estimate given of the Anthology. There is artificial taste in it, as Prof. Mahaffy complains, and inferior workmanship; there is plenty of base metal and late coinage; but the best of it is small change for a good tragedy or comedy, and it is coin which bears the Greek stamp and the Greek perfection of form.

If we turn from the literature of Alexandria and glance at life and politics, we encounter various developments of a decidedly modern character. There is, in the first place, a great increase of diplomacy and arbitration. The statecraft which fills so large a place in the pages of Polybius, and which leads Prof. Mahaffy to call him the Machiavelli of his time, begins to be reflected still earlier, in so unexpected a place as the heroic poems of Apollonius. His instructive anachronism reaches the ludicrous when we find Alcinous, King of the Phæacians, engaging to extradite Medea to her father, if he ascertains that a marriage with Jason has not been consummated! Joined with this (on the whole) salutary tendency, we see springing up the idea of the balance of power and the right of armed intervention. A most instructive instance of this is the interference of the Rhodians about 220 B. C. The Byzantines had recently been levying toll on all vessels passing their port, to the great inconvenience of all Greek commerce through the Black Sea. The Rhodians, as the chief maritime power of the Mediterranean, were appealed to, and, after formal remonstrances and a brief conflict, brought the Byzantines to terms. The singular part of the affair is, that the Rhodians behave exactly as a modern European nation would under the circumstances. They take no vengeance and no advantage; they simply demand that in future no toll shall be exacted, and they restore the Byzantines to the *status quo*. Of this occurrence Prof. Mahaffy remarks:

> "Here, then, was an armed intervention on behalf of trade interests carried on without hate or revenge, backed up by complicated diplomacy, and ceasing the moment the end was attained. The men who pursued this kind of politics were no longer Greeks, but citizens of the world."

It is only one step further in the same direction to find the recent fortune of our own cities, Charleston and Chicago, exactly paralleled and anticipated. Polybius narrates at length how, a few years before the Byzantine war, a great earthquake overthrew the Colossus, ruined all the docks and public buildings of Rhodes, and crippled her resources. The city at once sent embassies over the world to ask for help, and this appeal was answered from all the borders of the Mediterranean by the most lavish contributions in money, naval supplies, ships, and artillery, the value of which is reckoned to have amounted to the enormous sum of a million sterling. The issue of the catastrophe left the citizens immediately better off than they were before. Yet a few years after the Rhodians received gifts and complimentary resolutions, and their allies exhibited this enlightened sense

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of the solidarity of commercial interests and this astonishing specimen of international charity, the citizens of Abydos were piteously slaughtering themselves, their wives and children, upon their own walls, in accordance with a public resolution, rather than allow their families to fall into the hands of Philip V., their besieger; and Polybius, as a stoic, deplores the perversity of Fortune which prevented them from carrying out fully so glorious a resolution. His comment and the occurrence are equally significant. So sharp are the contrasts presented by the age; so unequal and so refluent is the tidal wave of civilization!

Supreme in importance and interest, to an American, at least, is the growing fashion of leagues between the smaller States for mutual protection, whose constitution approaches very closely the modern conception of federal government. Prof. Freeman, in his 'History of Federal Government,' and in some brilliant lectures, has discussed the constitutions of these leagues, and in particular of the Achæan League, the best known, the most important historically, and the most powerful of all. Already we find in its constitution, under various titles, a President, a Cabinet, a Senate, and a principle of representative voting. Nominally, it is a democracy—every citizen votes; but really, the necessity of distant travel to the places of meeting of the Assembly practically limits the franchise to the wealthy and influential, and converts the system into "a mild and liberal aristocracy." The workings of the League, its connection with the great names of Aratus, of Philopœmen and Polybius, and its relations with the Roman Empire, naturally occupy a large portion of the later pages of Prof. Mahaffy's volume, and call forth his liveliest interest; for no Irishman and no Englishman of the present day can neglect the most distant analogies to the question of Home Rule and English interference. This question, indeed, protrudes itself constantly from the beginning to the end of the volume, and its aspects inevitably color certain of our author's judgments. He sees in Achæan Home Rule many warnings against Irish Home Rule; he sees the sentimentalism of Titus Flamininus reflected in Mr. Gladstone; at the same time he sees clearly the Roman obtuseness and indifference to the Greeks, their fundamental want of sympathy, repeated between the English and the Irish. Far be it from us to deduce from so conflicting comparisons Mr. Mahaffy's own conclusions. He is fond of "strong governments," and distrusts democracies and popular orators. "We must judge the party of Demosthenes kindly as we judge all the other old men who have done mischief in the world." So piquant a sentence must be aimed at Mr. Gladstone, who is still alive, and old, rather than at Demosthenes, who has been so long innocuously buried.

The contact of the Jews with Hellenism at Alexandria and Antioch, in Syria, and even in Sparta, forms the subject of some curious and interesting chapters; and we are, apparently, promised a continuation of this series, to be entitled 'The Spiritual Life of Hellenism.' The task here undertaken is, in some respects, peculiar and exacting. The author who approaches it ought to have the gifts of the novelist as well as the conscience of the scholar and the historian; he should have the sympathetic imagination of the romancer, and yet deny himself romances. Dr. Ebers has been lately giving us pictures of antiquity which are neither fish, flesh, nor fowl—neither honest fact nor interesting fiction. Prof. Mahaffy's method is far more satisfactory. *Juvat integros accedere fontes.* Every English student and every intelligent reader will appreciate the opportunity given, by copious extracts from original authorities, to verify for himself the opinions and the conclusions of the author, and the amount of learned research which is here presented with so much freshness and vivacity.

CARLES'S LIFE IN COREA.

Life in Corea. By W. R. Carles, F.R.G.S. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1888.

THIS book is interesting as being the first in English about the once "Forbidden Land" and "Hermit Nation," by one who has been inside the country and among the people. Though shipwrecked sailors, gold prospectors, geologists, ornithologists, naval men, and missionaries have recently lived and travelled in Corea, these have not yet been provoked by either enemies or friends to write a book. Mr. Percival Lowell's 'Chôsön,' charming as a piece of literary work, does not describe much of the country beyond the capital and the port Fusan. The Rev. John Ross, who wrote ably upon the history and language of Corea, set foot in the land, for the first time, during the winter of 1887-8. Mr. Carles, on the contrary, besides some months' residence as British Vice-Consul at the port nearest the capital, made a journey of six weeks, the tracing of which on the map forms a rough parallelogram covering one-third of the peninsula. Besides collecting his papers furnished to journals, geographical and Government publications, he has added much material from his note-books, so that the narrative before us is the pretty full story of an eye-witness, with the out-door flavor of an active traveller, sportsman, and business man alert to trade openings.

Sir Harry Parkes, the able British Minister to Peking, made a treaty with Corea in 1882, and in the autumn of the following year prepared to go to Séoul to exchange ratifications. At the same time Mr. Carles was invited to visit the country privately. On the 8th of November, 1883, he came in sight, from shipboard, of the red granite and richly colored rocks of the west coast. The party of three Englishmen and a Dane, with Chinese servants, ponies, and the regulation assortment of dried and tinned meats, soups, and jams, succeeded, after the usual banging and bumping, in transferring themselves to a Corean boat. This "fortuitous concurrence of planks," innocent of nails, iron, or paint, dubbed even by the Chinese junk-sailors "a shoe," finally reached shore, where what seemed to be a group of penguins, with white breasts and black heads, turned out, on nearer view, to be venerable Coreans smoking long pipes. Choosing between the rough plank hovels and native mud huts of Chemulpo and the risk of being locked out of the city gates of Séoul after a twenty-six miles' ride, two of the party pushed on. Not until well within the city, and in side lanes, did they see a woman. This half of Corean humanity usually flies at the approach of foreigners, and to more than one embassy or company has the strange country appeared to contain males only. Admiral Welles's party saw not a single woman. The French missionaries, however, declare that the normal proportions of a census in other lands obtain, and that many of the females are comely in figure and beautiful in countenance. One numerous class, usually mistaken at first by newcomers for females, consists of unmarried boys and young men, who wear their hair in a long plait, like school-girls in our country. These bachelors are "boys," and, like the universal small boy, are frisky and playful, even though thirty years old, until they marry, for until wedded they are not supposed to have any sense, or an opinion worth listening to. Indeed, the bright little ragamuffins whom Mr. Carles saw in the streets and roads seemed the liveliest things in an otherwise sombre country.

"By the time that their pigtails had been tied in a married man's knot . . . their whole manner had altered, their humor had vanished, the whole of their thoughts seemed devoted to tobacco, and even the features of the face seem altered, owing to the constant strain on their facial muscles, used in supporting three feet of pipe-stem."

Another noticeable figure, the very reverse of the jolly small boy, is the mourner, dressed in hemp cloth, girt with a coarse belt, with the head completely hidden under wicker hats reaching to the shoulders. They further covered their faces with screens of hemp cloth stretched on two sticks. Etiquette allows no one to address a mourner, nor need he speak or reply to any one. This offered an obvious resource to the French missionaries who lived for years among the people, with a price set on their heads, often reading the Government proclamations adjudging them to death as soon as arrested. By means of this insulating costume, venturesome Japanese have succeeded in traversing the country, when death to all aliens found inside the provinces was the rule.

The custom of making the males keep inside the house at nights, and allowing the women to promenade the streets and take exercise at night—so striking in its contrast to our method of allowing the normal use of the night-key to gentlemen—is still kept up in Séoul. Mr. Carles thus confirms statements for making which some writers on Corea have been criticised. In the daytime the chief item of excitement on the streets was the passage of some officer who, with his outriders and foot-runners shouting to the crowd, made fuss and excitement. Perched on their stilted saddles resting on tiny stallions, the cavalrymen made up, with the saddle an intervening medium between man and beast, for the amazing diminutiveness of the native breed of horses, which are as vicious as they are lively. A peculiar species of vehicle, the monocycle, is used by the political grandee, who is half carried, half trundled along by four bearers. With leopard-skin robes, huge hat, and throat-lash of colored stones, the person and progress of a Government officer are highly imposing. After the passage of such a procession, the throng of blind men feeling their way with sticks, drunkards lying by the roadside, and bulls hidden under enormous loads of brushwood, lent an air of calm repose to the scene. Another characteristic sight was that of the women washing and whitening clothes. Soap is unknown, but none the less the men wear white clothing, and, as the outer robe must be spotless, the labor entailed upon the women is immense. The clothes are boiled three times, cleansed with lye, and washed in running water; then, all day long and through the earlier hours of the night, the women are engaged in beating the cloth on a flat board with a wooden ruler. The result is a gloss on the cloth of almost a silky nature, which lasts for a considerable time.

The above will show how good an observer of the details of life in Corea Mr. Carles is. What he especially brings to view is that which has been omitted by most writers on this land of white coats and big hats. Evidently, Corea is one of the oddest, quaintest, and most old-fashioned of countries. Even the Chinese complain that the style of writing in vogue is that of centuries ago, while the costume and coiffure are those once fashionable in China dynasties ago. A country that seems behind the times to Chinese must indeed be old. The author not only describes the capital, but takes us into the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

villages, points out the fortified monasteries, the queer roadside posts carved with grotesque human heads, and colored to represent the Corean devil; the dragon-pillars in honor of literary bachelors, and the rows of tablets of iron and stone set up to commemorate good magistrates. Evidently Corea suffers under the curse of being over-governed, and the number of the official class who prey on the community goes far to explain the poverty of the country.

With a keen scent after trade openings, the author made one overland journey from west to east, and a second long and interesting trip through the northern provinces. As Mr. James (as was noted in his book on Mantchuria) saw the once "neutral strip" between China and Corea occupied and cultivated by Chinese farmers, so Mr. Carles, looking from the eastern side, saw new and flourishing Chinese towns lining the side of the Yalu River, and the Coreans seeking employment as farm laborers under Chinese landlords, even as they cross the Tumen to get under Russian masters. Such a state of things reveals a shameful rapacity on the part of the Corean magistrates, which calls for a reform such as Japan has safely achieved.

Mr. Carles found game plenty, and, though he bagged no tigers, had frequent evidences that they, as well as leopards, deer, and other wild quadrupeds, were numerous. Wolves, however, he neither saw nor heard of. His long journey was extended to very near the centre of the northern frontier, to Wen-san, a lively port almost more Japanese than Corean, and thence across country to Séoul; the details of which fill the bulk of his book. He afterwards lived officially at Chemulpo, the new port near the capital, frequently visiting the capital. He gives a correct summary of recent political history, but is not sanguine as to the future commercial possibilities of the country. His experiences in attempting to discover possibilities, and to interest the interior magistrates in the subject of commerce, were both amusing and pathetic. The absolute stolidity on the subject shown by natives in authority show how deeply they dread the impending social revolution which trade will surely bring. It seems certain that the merchant has a great missionary work to do in this commercially benighted country, and the surest way to rid the oppressed people of the incubus of bad government is to stimulate production and improve the condition of the industrial classes. At present, notwithstanding its great natural resources, paralysis rests on the country which once gave Japan scholars, artists, and artisans.

The author's style is simple, clear, and attractive. He seems scrupulously adherent to facts and things seen, and his unpretentious book is a most valuable contribution to our knowledge of a land which still piques curiosity. An excellent map, a number of illustrations by native artists, and a full-page picture of one of the colossal stone images called Mir-iok, together with good print and binding, add to the pleasures derived from an honest piece of literary workmanship. Though the three southern and richest provinces of Corea are still unexplored, and though these have most sentimental interest as being the scene of Hendrik Hamel's life and travels, we are grateful that so observing a traveller in the northern and central portions has told his tale so well.

BANCROFT'S HISTORY OF MEXICO.

History of Mexico. Vol. VI, 1861-1887. [Vol. XIV of Bancroft's Works.] By Hubert Howe Bancroft. San Francisco: The History Company. 1888.

THE strongest impression left upon the reviewer as he closes this last volume of the series is the same as that with which he rose from reading the first, on its appearance—an impression, namely, of almost envious wonder at the immense range of material which Mr. Bancroft has laid under contribution. It may have been the reviewer's fortune to have picked up some unusual bits of information at first hand; for example, he may have been a guest in a remote and almost inaccessible Mexican village, quite off the travelled routes, and have asked his host to account for the charred beams to be seen in the ceiling, hearing, in reply, a long and strange tale of the ferocities of partisan warfare and of vengeful blows struck by foreign imperialists. Scarce a house in the whole village, in fact, but showed the marks of the torch. Yet even so minute a piece of knowledge as this, come at in such a chance fashion, floats along in its place on the broad stream of Mr. Bancroft's narrative, and an incidental note (p. 258) tells the story of Zitácuaro. One may have learned from natives, speaking in a half whisper, of the peculiar terrorism exercised for so many years in Guerrero by the Alvarez family, in which the Governorship of that State seemed to be vested as a feudal possession. Juan, the father, and Diego, the son, ruled like sultans, defying the Federal arms, laughing at the decisions of the Federal courts, robbing right and left like Turks. This little *peculium*, too, Mr. Bancroft sweeps into his great net, and shows (p. 127) that he knows all about it.

As to knowledge to be derived from printed books and manuscript collections, the case is hopeless from the start. A man will not be in haste to speak of the few rare books he may happen to possess, of a specimen or two of sixteenth-century Mexican typography, in the presence of Mr. Bancroft's royal resources—literally every authority, the rarest manuscripts, *incunabula* of the Mexican press. It would be Mudie versus the British Museum. Indeed, Mr. Bancroft's material is too great. No one man can handle it. The embarrassment of riches sticks out in every chapter. Careful indexing, thorough epitomizing, impartial abstracts by twenty hands, can never, though dovetailed together with the greatest skill, be equal to the product of a single mind in which all the ore has been fused. Thus it is that a sense as of ravelled threads, of a want of a continuous and philosophical grasp of the whole, is unavoidably connected with Mr. Bancroft's volumes. But this, after all, is little more than saying that man is a mortal and finite being.

Desiring, then, only to call attention to the distinctive merits of this final volume on Mexican history, we find its greatest value in the handling of the first seven years of the period in hand. These years are given 364 pages, as against only about a hundred for the remaining twenty. This is, of course, but a natural preference shown to a distinct and completed era—the French Intervention—over the less rounded-out events of the succeeding years. Mr. Bancroft might be thought to be also exercising a natural delicacy in speaking so succinctly of living Mexican statesmen and measures still pending, were it not that he is betrayed into something very like adulation with reference to Presidents Gonzalez and Diaz. We do not dispute, however, the general accuracy of his estimates of those great figures in contemporary Mexican politics. The volume closes with seven chapters, covering 230 pages, which are summaries, such as no one but Mr. Bancroft could write, packed with information on Mexico's government, mining, manufactures, railroads, agricultural resources, ecclesiastical affairs, society, and education.

The book should be mainly judged by its success in telling the story of the Intervention, and the decision must be that the success has been very great. Until the French and Austrian archives yield their secrets, or until more Mexicans find their tongues, as they have been doing so remarkably in the past twelvemonth, we know not how more could be expected in the way of a thorough, all-sided, impartial, and penetrating treatment of this striking epoch in Mexican history. Its public and private aspects, its European and American relations, the long intrigues which led up to it, and the scheming and doubling which it covered, its political and its ecclesiastical aims and results, all leap into sharp outline under Mr. Bancroft's hand. Nowhere else is so much material brought together to bring out clearly the figure of Maximilian himself. Without any formal attempt at characterization, he stands before us in these pages, as in life, a strange mixture of worthy ambition and self-love—conceiving large projects and bringing to birth only petty results; deceived and helping to deceive others in regard to Mexico; an Emperor at a desk heaped high with pro posed laws, when he should have been at the head of the army; mired and at last suffocated in Mexican officialism, incompetence, and deceit. The fact is well brought out, too, that Maximilian more than half thought of his Mexican "episode" as furnishing him a convenient stage on which to play to an audience of admiring Austrians, who had already had a taste of his art as Governor-General of Lombardy, and who might be led to devise some means of getting him over the obstacle of a single life which stood between him and the Austrian throne, if only he should well play the part in Mexico of a wise and liberal ruler. But the historical plays have their tragedy, as he found out to his surprise.

The only thing which could be called an omission to be noted in this part of the work is an absence of all reference to the highly important revelations made last summer by Gen. Escobedo in regard to the final scene at Querétaro. This, of course, simply means that the new light came too late for Mr. Bancroft's use, though it would seem as if a new edition or added page would be demanded in consequence. The doubt expressed in respect to the unaffected nature of the welcome given to the Emperor on his arrival in Mexico might have been given more color by a citation of the warrants on the Treasury, recently published by the Mexican Government, drawn to pay for the "spontaneous" festivities, triumphal arches, etc. That Bazaine made treasonable propositions to Gen. Diaz might also have been stated as something more than a suspicion, if due notice had been taken of the latter's recent allegations on this head. Again, one might wish that a little more attention had been given to the Empress Carlotta as a force in public affairs. Perhaps more striking than her social and charitable activities was her attitude as regent during some of Maximilian's absences from the capital—her dash and vigor compared to his good-natured indolence.

Several misprints disfigure the volume, and the oft-noted faults of Mr. Bancroft's style are only a little less offensive than in other books of his. On page 480 a blank half-page follows a promise to subjoin a statistical table. The index, which is to the six volumes of the series, is seriously defective in a few particulars in which we have tested it.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

DAWSON'S GEOLOGICAL HISTORY OF PLANTS.

The Geological History of Plants. By Sir J. William Dawson, C.M.G. D. Appleton & Co. [International Scientific Series.]

THE author of this work has been occupied with the study of fossil plants for about half a century, and has enjoyed exceptional opportunities for acquainting himself with the forms found in this country, and more particularly in Canada. The diligence with which he has improved these advantages is sufficiently attested by his voluminous contributions which have appeared in the reports of the Geological Survey of Canada. It is not an easy matter to bring within the narrow limits of three hundred pages a connected account of the fragmentary records of fossil vegetation, especially when restricted by the additional limitations imposed by the demands of a popular exposition. It has seemed to us that the author has been embarrassed in still another way. Most naturalists look nowadays upon the existing vegetation of the globe as derived by evolution from preëxisting vegetation—the plants of earlier periods being regarded as the progenitors of the plants of the present. The author does not share in these views; nevertheless, he is impressed by what he calls "a certain rough correspondence between the order of rank of plants and the order of their appearance in time." In working out the history, he has appeared to keep in mind so prominently the exceptions which make the correspondence "rough," instead of exact, that the history itself is here and there thrown somewhat out of proportion, and the honest endeavor to guard against this has seemed to be no slight source of embarrassment.

After an introductory chapter on geological chronology and the classification of plants, the author enters on the discussion of the vegetation of the early palæozoic and its antecedent formations. On the second page of this discussion we come to this statement: "Certain forms known as *Eozoon Canadense* have been recognized in the Laurentian limestones, which indicate the presence at least of one of the lower types of marine animals." We do not find any hint in this volume, designed for popular instruction, that there is any doubt at all as to the animal nature of *Eozoon:* it seems to us as if the statement should be somewhat qualified, in order that the general reader may know that some geologists are not quite of this way of thinking. The remains of plants found in the earliest formations are obscure and highly puzzling. Of the many questions regarding them which the author takes up and treats in a candid manner, one may be of general interest. In 1859 he described a plant from Gaspé which appeared to him to present many points of resemblance to the Gymnosperms, to which our pines and yews belong, and to this plant he gave the name of Prototaxites. Other investigators, notably Carruthers, regarded the plant as far lower in the scale, being, in short, an alga or sea-weed. A reinvestigation of the subject, based on different specimens, and especially the careful examination by Prof. Penhallow of the minute structure, have caused Dawson to modify his original view in many particulars. He now holds that

"the tissues of these singular trees, which seem to have existed from the beginning of the Silurian age, and to have finally disappeared in the early Erian, are altogether distinct from any form of vegetation hitherto known, and are possibly survivors of the prototypal flora. . . . They are trees of large size, with a coaly bark and large spreading roots, having the surface of the stem smooth or irregularly ribbed, but with a nodose or jointed appearance. Internally, they show a tissue of long cylindrical tubes, traversed by a complex network of horizontal tubes thinner walled and of smaller size. The tubes are arranged in concentric zones, which, if annual rings, would in some specimens indicate an age of one hundred and fifty years."

But concerning the latter point, Penhallow says, in a note at the end of the chapter, that the plant was not truly exogenous, and the appearance of rings is independent of the causes which determine the layers of growth in exogenous plants.

The Erian, or Devonian, forests which followed were composed of gigantic ferns, scouring-rushes, and clubmosses, together with two types of plants allied to our pines. The ferns and their allies are reproduced not by seeds, but by bodies known as spores. The recognition of the immense quantities of spores which accumulated during this period, in places where they had drifted or been washed, has led to a very curious conclusion on the part of some, namely, that a certain large part of the petroleum and other inflammable substances characteristic of some of the black shales is chiefly due to the minute spores of Rhizocarps and the like, growing in Devonian times.

"The America of this Erian age consisted, during the greater part of the period, of a more or less extensive belt of land in the north, with two long tongues descending from it, one along the Appalachian line in the east, the other in the region west of the Rocky Mountains. On the seaward sides of these there were low lands covered with vegetation, while on the inland side the great interior sea, with its verdant and wooded islands, realized, though probably with shallower water, the condition of the modern archipelagoes of the Pacific."

The great coal period follows:

"When the land emerged, we find it covered with the rich flora of the coal-formation proper, in which the great tribes of the Lycopods and Cordaites attained their maxima, and the ferns were continued as before, though under new generic and specific forms. There is something very striking in this succession of a new plant world without any material advance. It is like passing in the modern world from one district to another, in which we see the same forms of life, only represented by distinct though allied species. Thus, when the voyager crosses the Atlantic from Europe to America, he meets with pines, oaks, birches, poplars, and beeches of the same genera with those he had left behind; but the species are distinct. It is something like this that meets us in our ascent into the carboniferous world of plants. Yet we know that this is a succession in time, that all our old Erian friends are dead and buried long ago, and that these are new forms lately introduced."

The question cannot be kept back—Whence and how were they introduced? At the close of that period did the curtain fall for a change of scene; or, on the contrary, was the succession of organisms practically unbroken? We find no attempt to answer this question until we reach the final chapter:

"With regard to the introduction of specific types, we have not as yet a sufficient amount of information. Even if we freely admit that ordinary specific forms, as well as mere varieties, may result from derivation, this by no means excludes the idea of primitive specific types originating in some other way. Just as the chemist, after analyzing all compounds and ascertaining all allotropic forms, arrives at length at certain elements not mutually transmutable or derivable, so the botanist and zoölogist must expect sooner or later to arrive at elementary specific types, which, if to be accounted for at all, must be explained on some principle distinct from that of derivation."

The views of many modern chemists as to the ultimate constitution and the relations of the chemical elements would appear to impair the force and even imperil the safety of the analogical illustration which the author has here employed. In any event, cannot the word *must*, which is twice used, be better replaced by *may?* And would not an admission, even if not free, that "ordinary specific forms, as well as mere varieties, may result from derivation," be helpful to the general reader for whom this book is designed? Could not the author, at the close of his paragraph on the coal-plants, have said: These new forms, lately introduced, are, in all probability, the descendants of the plants of the preceding period?

The author takes strong ground against the views of those who regard spores and sporecases as the chief source of the coal deposits. He believes, as well he may, that the cortical and woody matters of the coal plants are the most important ingredients in all the ordinary kinds. The luxuriant vegetation of the coal period he ascribes to (1) the smaller amount of land in the higher latitudes and a consequent difference of climate (Lyell), (2) a larger percentage of carbonic acid in the atmosphere, "obstructing the radiation of heat from the earth, producing almost the effect of a glass roof or conservatory extending over the whole world" (Tyndall). It is by no means certain that the amount of carbonic acid in the atmosphere then was very much larger than it is at present, although recent investigations have shown that plants are, after all, tolerant of a somewhat increased amount of this gas.

In the earlier part of the reptilian age which came next, there was a remarkable development of flowering plants, not only of the simpler gymnospermous type which had appeared in the preceding period, but of palms and some exogens. Later came the modern types of our forest trees, the same genera being represented in plane-trees, magnolias, maples, and the like, which we have as constituents of our woods today, but with differences in foliage which forbid our regarding these as species identical with ours. The oaks and poplars are not our own species, but there can be no doubt as to the genera. The relations between these precursors of our flora and the plants which now cover the continents have been brought out in an interesting manner by the late Dr. Gray in his 'Sequoia and its History,' a memoir to which Sir William Dawson frequently refers in terms of praise. But we fail to see that in this treatise he has adopted even with reservation the views as to genetic relationship which give to Dr. Gray's treatise its chief value.

Dawson's 'Geological History of Plants' is a useful book. Although it is unsatisfactory in that it presents with a certain vagueness the author's views as to the origin of species and even of "specific types," it may, nevertheless, serve as somewhat of a check on those who think that they can explain by a word the sudden irruption of variant forms at certain epochs. It is, moreover, in the main, a trustworthy, interesting, and convenient handbook for the general reader.

Correspondence of Henry Taylor. Edited by Edward Dowden. Longmans & Co.

THE ethics of publication in regard to private correspondence are sufficiently plain. There have been certain men—Charles Lamb, for instance, and Lord Byron—whose letters, from a literary point of view, are so excellent, lively, and attractive as to constitute a clear addition to the standard literature of the world. There are other letters, again, which possess a perennial interest from the stirring scenes or the remarkable society from the midst of which they were written. They add, that is, to our historical knowledge. The correspondence before us cannot plead its right to a public existence

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

under either of these heads. It adds nothing to the sum of human knowledge, and very little to the sum of human entertainment. That Sir Henry Taylor and his correspondents, male and female, are superior and admirable personages, we do not deny. All that we assert is, that in the letters which Professor Dowden has here published there is nothing of sufficient importance or interest to repay one for the trouble of reading them. The greater part of them are written by Sir Henry Taylor himself, and, as Professor Dowden observes in the brief preface he has prefixed to them: "This volume will interest those readers most who are best acquainted with Henry Taylor's 'Autobiography.'" Now, Sir Henry Taylor, to judge from his own account of himself, was, to use the jargon of the day, too admirably adapted to his environment for the element of conflict to come into his life. Rather his life becomes curious as showing what a very pleasant place a civilized world is to live in, if only a man knows how to do it, and is tolerably well favored by Fortune. Sir Henry Taylor was a poet of no small excellence, but one who furnishes a conspicuous exception to the dictum of Shelley, that poets "learn in suffering what they teach in song." He was a thinker, but one who could contemplate "the burden and the mystery of all this unintelligible world" as something apart from and independent of himself. He was, for many years, the chief permanent official at the London Colonial Office, but, caring little for either history or politics, he was troubled with no misgivings as to the future of the British Empire or the destiny of the human race. The world he lived in was a very good world, abundantly peopled with intellectual men and sympathetic women; good dinners and good society were to be found everywhere; wife and children and friends were his, as well as an ample portion of material prosperity; and, possessing all these things, Sir Henry was wisely content. He did not expend his energies in a fruitless search for better bread than can be made of wheat, or break out with piteous outcries because he could not find it. He took the goods the gods provided him, and asked for no other.

Such interest as there is in the 'Autobiography' arises mainly from the loving particularity in which Sir Henry draws out all the details of this sustaining self-contentment, and this profound and placid satisfaction with himself and his surroundings is the trait which characterizes nearly all his letters in this volume of his 'Correspondence.' No storms in the world outside disturb his equanimity; no inward doubts or questionings produce a ripple upon its untroubled surface. Seeing, then, what manner of man Sir Henry Taylor was, upon his own showing, it is not a little amusing to find him charging Sir Walter Scott, not without asperity, of "a defect of moral force." "Scott," he writes, "seems to be always disposed to approve of rectitude of conduct, and to acquiesce in the general rules of morality, but without any instinctive or unconquerable aversion from vice—witness his friendship for Byron." To have a feeling of kindness for Byron was, in the eyes of Sir Henry Taylor, a sin that could not be forgiven, on account of the sarcasms against Wordsworth and Southey in which Byron was in the habit of indulging. From a like cause, he writes with an excess of bitterness of Jeffrey, who, when Sir Henry was visiting Edinburgh, had been sufficiently indiscreet to show him a great deal of hospitality.

"The person," he writes to Southey, "of whom I saw most after Wilson was my Lord Jeffrey; and, though Hudson and the Major may have been better men, yet the Lord Rector was worth seeing, in order to understand by what small springs mankind may be moved from time to time. There came from him, with a sort of dribbling fluency, the very mincemeat of small talk, with just such a seasoning of cleverness as might serve to give it an air of pretension. . . . When one looks at the clever little worldling, and remembers that for twenty years he was enabled to keep the sunshine from the cottage-door of a man of genius, one cannot but wonder how so small a man could cast so large a shadow."

The scattered notices which occur in these letters from "the man of genius" are, perhaps, the best things in them. The 'Correspondence,' indeed, opens with a letter from Wordsworth to Taylor, on the subject of Byron's plagiarisms, which it was hardly kind of Sir Henry to have left for publication. Passing this by, the following is Taylor's description of the great poet in 1835, Wordsworth being at the time a visitor in his house:

"This old philosopher is one of the most extraordinary human phenomena that one could have in the house. He has the simplicity and helplessness of a child in regard to the little transactions of life; and whilst he is being directed and dealt with in regard to them, he keeps tumbling out the highest and deepest thoughts that the mind of man can reach, in a stream of discourse which is so oddly broken by the little hitches and interruptions of common life, that we admire and laugh at him by turns. Everything that comes into his mind comes out—weakness or strength, affections or vanities—so that, if ever an opportunity was afforded of seeing a human being through and through, we have it in the person of this 'old man eloquent.' He is very happy with us, and very social with everybody, and we have a variety of people to meet him every day at breakfast and dinner."

This, again, regarding Carlyle, strikes us as very good and true:

"Carlyle seems in better health than usual and talks away lustily, and there is always something to take one's attention in his talk, and often a sort of charm in it; but less instructive talk I never listened to from any man who had read and attempted to think. His opinions are the most groundless and senseless opinions it is possible to utter; or, rather, they are not opinions, for he will utter the most opposite and contradictory and incompatible opinions in the most dogmatic and violent language in the course of half an hour. The real truth is, that they are not opinions, but 'shams.' And I think it is the great desire to have opinions, and the incapacity to form them, which keeps his mind in a constant struggle, and gives it over to every kind of extravagance. It is wonderful that a man of no opinions should exercise such an influence in the world as he appears to do; but I suppose it is an influence of concussion and subversion rather than any other."

There are other notices of eminent men up and down these letters—Coleridge, John Stuart Mill, Alfred Tennyson, and others—which are interesting enough; but five-sixths of the 'Correspondence,' we repeat, ought not to have been published—not because there is anything positively objectionable in it, but because it is negative and characterless. What harm, it may be asked, is done by the publication of a book even if it be profitable for nothing? No harm, we reply, if it be not ushered into the world under the shelter of an attractive name. But if, as in the present instance, it comes before us weighted with the double authority of Sir Henry Taylor and Professor Dowden, it does actually constrain thinking men to spend their time in reading it; and when one remembers the vast expenditure of valuable time in unprofitable reading that we cannot escape from, to be thus constrained without good cause is a not insignificant calamity. Finally, be the book intrinsically worth much or little, it belongs to a class which ought never to appear without an index; and yet it has none. Should not the publishers as well as the editor be held responsible for this omission?

A Library of American Literature, from the Earliest Settlement to the Present Time. Compiled and edited by Edmund Clarence Stedman and Ellen Mackay Hutchinson. In ten volumes. Vols. 1-3. Charles L. Webster & Co.

THREE periods are covered by the first issues of this 'Library'—the Early Colonial, the Later Colonial, and the Revolutionary, ending in 1787. The literature of the Republic will fill the seven remaining volumes; the last five will deal with the last half century, and the last two will embrace the years since the outbreak of the civil war. The undertaking seems to us one of much merit, both in design and in execution. Inevitably in the beginning the historical interest predominates over the literary and rhetorical; and perhaps the highest value of the compilation as a whole will consist in its exhibition of the development of American culture, or civilization, in the broadest sense of the term. Proceeding from Capt. John Smith, we observe in the first volume few important sources for early colonial history that have been overlooked or purposely disregarded. We should name Lechford's 'Plain Dealing' as one of these, and John Clarke's 'Ill News from New England'; the latter particularly because of its relation to a famous episode in the religious intolerance of the Bay Colony, and because the Quakers have been so well cared for by the compilers. Clarke was a Baptist, and, with Obadiah Holmes, was a concrete example of the persecution which Roger Williams here denounces in very vague terms, not likely to impress themselves on the memory. In the case of the Quakers, we are given not only the equally vague Scriptural warnings and censure of oppressors, but a specific enumeration of cruel inflictions, as made in the protest and appeal to Charles II. by ear-clipt Rouse and Copeland, Southwick, and other suffering New England members of the denomination. The body of poetry in the first volume is naturally as small as it is poor in quality. Portions of the Bay Psalm Book and the whole of Peter Folger's "Homely Plea for Toleration" are the chief instances.

Theology and superstition are, by extension, the leading lines of the second volume. To the Cambridge Platform succeeds the Saybrook Platform; to the harrying of heretics, the harrying of the witches. These aspects are summed up in Cotton Mather, who is well represented—more so than any author, not excepting Jonathan Edwards. One might have liked more of Samuel Sewall, but the three pieces quoted are certainly characteristic—his confession concerning his error in the witchcraft trials, his courtship of Madam Winthrop, and his 'Selling of Joseph.' With this anti-slavery tract (complete except for the authorities cited in Latin at the end), the compilers begin a series of excerpts bearing on the great evil in the constitution of American society. Anthony Benezet's 'Caution and Warning to Great Britain and her Colonies' against the slave trade follows after an interval of sixty-six years; but of this, of course, only a fragment can be given.

In the third volume John Woolman appears with his testimonies against slavery, wherein his vision was "by that which is immutable." Samuel Hopkins seconds him in Rhode Island. From Franklin nothing is quoted on this subject, nor perhaps was anything available; but Jefferson might have been drawn upon, and, well chosen as are the extracts from his correspondence, his 'Notes on Virginia' deserved, for many reasons, to be exemplified in this collection. His opinion of the capacity and view

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of the future of the negro race are landmarks of the sentiment of his generation, and will long have a curious interest. John Jay's account of the way in which slavery was fastened upon the United States is cited, as is James Madison's approval of colonization. We regret that some mediocre verse of St. George Tucker's was preferred to extracts from his most honorable 'Dissertation on Slavery.' Phillis Wheatley's performances are admitted among the still feeble poetical products of the period 1765-1787; and we hope that her color will be represented further on in extracts from David Walker's 'Appeal,' a black man's response to Jefferson's 'Notes' more fiery than Banneker's. In this third volume we remark also the biographical apparatus—Gov. Hutchinson on the character and rule of Gov. Burnet, Dr. Hopkins's admonition to Aaron Burr, John Adams's character of Franklin, Jefferson's anecdote of Franklin and portraits of Hamilton and Adams, Benjamin Rush on the life of Benezet, etc., not omitting mention of Aaron Cleveland's poem on "The Family Blood," which is just now a national concern:

> "If found in Cleveland's blood a trait
> To aid you in affairs of state. . . .
>
> Then rule my head—and keep my heart
> From folly, weakness, wit apart:
> With all such gifts I glad dispense,
> But only leave me—*common sense.*"

The only state paper is Washington's Farewell Address, unabridged and with due notice of the aid of Hamilton and Jay.

It were easy to descant at still greater length on this 'Library,' and we have conveyed but an inadequate idea of it, yet enough, we trust, to indicate its worth to the student, and its attraction for the average reader. It would certainly enrich any domestic library, and in all schools of the higher grade it should be on hand as an adjunct in teaching both history and literature, and as an aid in rhetorical exercise, whether reading, declamation, or composition. The typography is excellent, and we have no error to point out, except that on p. 185 of vol. 3 a figure has been dropped from the date of Benjamin Church's death—177[6]. In vol. 2, p. 129, Cotton Mather's story of Margaret Rule is ascribed to Calef (*i. e.*, to 'More Wonders of the Invisible World'). We wish the editors would abandon in subsequent volumes the exasperating "[From the Same]"—a lazy finger-post, entailing much needless labor on the searcher. There are portraits in all these volumes, and they add something to the value of the text.

L'Homme selon le Transformisme. Par Arthur Vianna de Lima. Paris: Félix Alcan. 1888.

This book forms part of a library of contemporaneous philosophy, in which are works by many of the ablest investigators in this field. The writer, a young Brazilian, author of an 'Exposé Sommaire des Théories Transformistes de Lamarck, Darwin, et Haeckel' (Paris, 1886), is not, however, identified with research in the broad field of biology or the narrower one of anthropology. His subject, the derivation of the human species, is treated in the usual order, commencing with the bodily structure, and ending with the intellectual and spiritual nature. It is considered not as an unsolved, but as a fully solved problem, and the author states his thesis in the introduction with great emphasis, viz., that man, considered in every way, bodily, mentally, and spiritually, is simply a member of the animal series. It is, perhaps, natural that, starting with this settled conviction, and not apparently having had the severe discipline of original investigation, the author should select for his book the facts and conclusions which strongly support and confirm the truth of his thesis, and that where the admirably arranged and sifted material to be found in Darwin's books was not sufficiently strong, he should adopt the more confident and radical statements of Haeckel and other writers. On the whole, however, the first part of the book, treating of man's zoölogical position and bodily structure, represents fairly well existing knowledge, but it cannot be said that new light has been added, or that the light already possessed has been concentrated on the salient points in such a way as to enable the reader to distinguish easily the important features in the great and often detailed mass of facts and hypotheses presented.

The second part of the book is devoted to a consideration of the mental and spiritual nature, and is far less satisfactory than the first. The author states without reserve that the religious sentiments are not inherent in human beings, and cites in support of this the testimony of many persons that there are, even at the present day, whole tribes with absolutely no religious ideas and no notion of the supernatural or mysterious (p. 175). A little further on, however, to show that the germ of religion is to be found in the sense of the mysterious displayed by many animals, he quotes the case related by Darwin of the dog that was frightened at the movement of an umbrella by the wind when no one was near. As the book contains no hint of the degeneration or the "fall of man," the critical student would have to conclude from the above that part of the human race had developed from an ancestor having a sense of the mysterious, and, therefore, according to the author, the germs, at least, of religion, and that another part had descended from one having no such sense, and, since becoming human, had not acquired it. A great deal is said concerning the sexual characters and passions of men and animals, and, finally, several pages are given up to the revolting vices of human beings. What the bearing on the evolution of man this recital is intended to have it is not easy to see, for the lower animals are entirely free from most of the traits mentioned. If the possession of peculiar vices is to be taken as a serious evolutionary argument, it will be necessary to understand quite literally the expression, "descent of man."

Actual misstatements are too frequent throughout the entire book. For example, it is stated that in man and all the other primates the eyelids, except for the eyelashes, are entirely devoid of hair, that typhoid fever is a disease common to men and monkeys, and that the primates alone possess a discoidal placenta. The author is very fond of using the expressions "absolute, demonstrated," etc., and perhaps the worst feature of the book is the frequent recurrence of unqualified or exaggerated statements respecting matters really far from satisfactorily determined.

Whatever may have been the belief or the insight of the great Linnæus with reference to the origin of the human race, he placed man, in his classification, in the same group as the apes and monkeys, calling all *primates.* It is, however, since the time of Lamarck, but more especially since the whole thinking world was stirred by Darwin's assertion that by *natural selection* "light would be thrown on the origin of man and his history," that the greatest activity has been shown in trying to determine the relationship between the animals themselves, and wherein is their point of contact with the human race. The classical work of Huxley in determining the structural relations of man's body to that of the lower animals, especially the anthropoid apes, and his conclusion that man's structure, even to minute details, is like theirs, has received the most abundant confirmation by later investigators. Brilliant efforts have also been made in attempting to find prototypes of all man's mental and spiritual activities in the "beasts of the field"; but the final settlement of this problem remains for the future. As, therefore, the human body is undoubtedly similar in structure to that of the lower animals, thinking men, creationists as well as evolutionists, are logically driven to the belief that the origin of man's body is inseparably connected with that of the animals; and whenever it is as clearly shown that all the intellectual and spiritual powers of the human mind differ only in degree from those of the lower animals, then the same logical necessity will establish the belief that the origin of the entire man was linked inseparably with that of the animals.

As all books on the descent of man must inevitably be compared with Darwin's, this may be so compared in a word by saying that in Darwin the sole aim seems to be to arrive at the truth, in this to establish a thesis.

Pictures of East Anglian Life. By. P. H. Emerson. London: Sampson Low.

This is a delightful book. By means of thirty-two large photogravures and fifteen smaller reproductions of photographs, Mr. Emerson has admirably illustrated his observations on the life and peculiarities of the inhabitants of the eastern counties of England. He tells us that all the local information has been taken direct from the field and the peasants, from the sea and the fisher-folk, and he offers it "fresh and redolent with newly-turned earth and newly-blown flowers, with sea-breezes and sea-tangle." And, indeed, no one can study the illustrations and read the accompanying text without becoming imbued with the author's enthusiasm, and without feeling that he has gained an entirely new insight into the character and surroundings of the English peasant. So artistic are the illustrations, with their Corot-like softness of outline, that in future no book that deals with an unfamiliar country will seem complete without such aids; and it is pleasant to contemplate that, as the photographic art improves, the scenic delights of travel will constantly be made clearer to the minds of those who must perforce stay at home. There should be, and no doubt there will be, books such as this about every corner of the globe, and Mr. Emerson is to be thanked for setting the example.

The keynote of the artistic side of the book is to be found in the fact that the author is a worshipper of Nature. He believes the old Greeks to have been the happiest race that has yet lived upon the earth, because they thoroughly appreciated the beautiful; and he is deeply impressed with the shortcomings of the modern artist in his efforts to reproduce the glories of Nature. He says:

> "The poet, the artist, the naturalist, are truly they who drink life to the brim, yet often their hearts are sad because of the exquisite beauties they see and are silent upon. . . . The music of the breeze, as it sighs, rustles, and breathes in the gorse brakes, the play of light on the gnarled stems, the water-beads after an April shower, now clear as glass, now shining like the sun as the light is reflected from them, who can tell of these? . . . Who shall describe what none can paint—the unsurpassed splendor of the golden gorse? . . . We sympathize with Linnæus, of whom it is written that he fell on his knees when he first saw an English common covered with gorse in full bloom. . . . Form and atmosphere and tone we can now accurately and subtly render by the help of the sun itself, but, alas! not so with

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

color. The nearer we get to Nature, the sweeter will be our lives, and never shall we attain to the true secret of happiness until we identify ourselves as a part of Nature."

Mr. Emerson loves not the conventionalities of the painter's art, but he evidently has an abiding faith that photography will some day solve the problem of color, and that then Art will be infinitely nearer to Nature, and therefore infinitely truer than it is at present.

In regard to the peasantry and fishermen, Mr. Emerson finds that their ruling passion is avarice, and that they are envious and unwilling to give information to one another. He states "on good authority" that they would rather see a horse kill a man than tell him how to manage it! It is interesting to note that they constantly make use of such words as "cute," "tarnation," "guess," "riled," which the uninformed Englishman sets down without hesitation as pure Americanisms. They have many excellent qualities, and, judging from some of the anecdotes in this book, are not devoid of a sense of humor. Take, for instance, this reply of a hungry lad, one of a large family, to the childless rector who had endeavored to comfort him by remarking that as God sends the children he will also provide food for them: "Thet's all wery wal, passon, for yow to tark so, for all tha food go to yours, and all tha babes to ours." Here, too, is a definition of the gentleman fisherman which certainly applies to a great many lovers of the gentle craft: "The gents who went fishin' was them as liked to get away into the country, and didn't want to appear kind o' idle; so they brought rods and tackle and all that with them." The life of the East Anglian peasant seems to be an uncommonly hard one. He lives in a miserable, unwholesome cottage, works from morn till night with "endless, hopeless regularity," and with great difficulty keeps the wolf from the door. Nor is the lot of the fisherman any easier than that of the agricultural laborer. No wonder, therefore, that Mr. Emerson strongly advises them to emigrate to milder climates and more fruitful soils; and, with all due deference to the Laureate and the cultured classes to whom alone his well-known lines apply, comes to the conclusion that, "for the starving peasant of Europe, better perhaps a decade of Otaheite than a cycle of Great Britain." He believes that English farming will improve as the virgin soil of America decreases, and as more labor and capital are required on this side of the Atlantic to produce grain; but if this is the only hope of the English farmer, his regeneration is surely relegated to the remote future.

Mr. Emerson describes in strong language the many evils that result from the effort on the part of the landlord class to enforce the mediæval game laws, and his sympathies are evidently enlisted on the side of the poacher. He shows by means of the evidence collected by a Parliamentary committee that game preserves occasion a serious destruction of agricultural products, and he claims that the upper classes have no real love of sport in the true sense of the word, and only preserve game in order to increase their incomes by becoming game-dealers on a large scale. His indignation is also aroused by the encroachments which the landowners are constantly making on the *broads* and other public waters, with a view to fish preserving; and he charges, in addition to all this selfishness, that the upper classes, instead of doing anything to improve the condition of the laborers, are deliberately and strongly opposed to any such improvement.

It seems almost ungracious to find fault with a book which is certain to give so much pleasure, but it must be said, nevertheless, that it contains a number of grammatical errors. The table of errata is typical of this kind of carelessness, and is in itself a curiosity. It contains but two corrections, and they are both wrong! At page 45 the reader is asked to substitute "sargossic" for "saragossic," though the word should be sargassic; and at pages 55, 56, he is told to read "fera naturæ" instead of "feræ naturæ," and is left to wonder why. These, however, are comparatively small matters, and would call for no special remark if the book, as a whole, were not one of unusual excellence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, W. B. Kelp: A Story of the Isles of Shoals. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.
Burbank, W. H. The Photographic Negative. Scoville Manufacturing Co. $1.50.
Campbell, Helen. Roger Berkeley's Probation: A Story. Boston: Roberts Bros. 50 cents.
Bishop, W. H. The Brown-Stone Boy. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Clark, Rev. F. E. Danger Signals. The Enemies of Youth. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 75 cents.
Craig, Lieut. J. E. Azimuth. With a Sketch of the Astronomical Triangle, and of the Effect of Errors in the Data. John Wiley & Sons.
Crawford, F. M. Mr. Isaacs: A Tale of Modern India. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Dod, S. B. Stubble or Wheat? A Story of More Lives than One. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.25.
Dippold, Dr. G. T. Richard Wagner's Poem, The Ring of the Nibelung, Explained and in Part Translated. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Ely, Prof. R. T. Taxation in American States and Cities. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.
Erskine, P. Iona: A Lay of Ancient Greece. Boston: Cupples & Upham.
Fisher, Prof. G. P. Manual of Christian Evidences. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 75 cents.
Holden, E. S. Hand-Book of the Lick Observatory of the University of California. San Francisco: The Bancroft Co.
Lamartine, A. de. Jeanne D'Arc. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Leslie, Mrs. Frank. Rents in Our Robes. Belford, Clarke & Co.
Lock, Rev. J. B. Trigonometry for Beginners as far as the Solution of Triangles. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Lockwood, Sara E. H. Lessons in English, adapted to the Study of American Classics. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.25.
Macfarran, Prof. G. A. Addresses and Lectures. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Mario, Jessie White. Agostino Bertani e i suoi Tempi. Florence: G. Barbèra.
Meyer, G. Kurzgefasste Albanesische Grammatik. Mit Lesestücken und Glossar. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.
Platt, J. J. Poems of House and Home. Revised ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Proctor, R. A. Old and New Astronomy. Part II. Longmans, Green & Co.
Puck's Opper Book. Reprinted from *Puck*. Keppler & Schwarzmann.
Stoddard, Elizabeth. Two Men. Cassell & Co.

Henry Holt & Co.

JUST PUBLISH:

WAGNER'S POEM,

The Ring of the Nibeluug.

Explained and in part translated by George T. Dippold, Ph.D. 12mo, $1.50.

By Author of THE FIRST VIOLIN.

The Lasses of Leverhouse.

Cloth, $1.00; paper, 30 cents.

Hammer and Anvil.

By F. Spielhagen. Paper, 50 cents.

Cheaper Edition, at 60 cents, of

Uncle Sam at Home.

By Harold Brydges. Cloth, $1.25; paper, 60 cents.

F. W. CHRISTERN,

254 Fifth Avenue, between 28th and 29th Sts., New York.
Importer of Foreign Books, Agent for the leading Paris Publishers, Tauchnitz's British Authors, Teubner's Greek and Latin Classics. Catalogues of stock mailed on demand. A large assortment always on hand, and new books received from Paris and Leipzig as soon as issued.

BOARD AT LAKE GEORGE.—Owl's Nest Inn.—Beautiful situation, overlooking Dunham's Bay. Good table. Fishing. Ample grounds. Homelike place for families. Board, $7.00 a week and upward; reduced for servants and children; special for June. Send for circular. ELWIN SEELYE, Joshua's Rock, Lake George, N. Y.

OUTLINE STUDIES in Holmes, Bryant, Whittier. 10c. mailed. CHAS. H. KERR & CO., Pubs., Chicago.

SALON CATALOGUES, 1888.

SALON CATALOGUE, ILLUSTRÉ. BASCHET,	$1.25
FIGARO SALON. 5 Parts, per part,	60
L'ILLUSTRATION. SALON NUMBER,	60
SALON GOUPIL. ILLUSTRÉ, PHOTOGRAVURE,	20.00
SALON, EDITION BERNARD. 2 vols.	4.50

Sent, postpaid, on receipt of price.

We can supply French and other Foreign Books more reasonably than any house in America.

Brentano's, 5 Union Square, N. Y. 101 State St., Chicago. 17 Ave. de L'Opera, Paris, France.

DAVID G. FRANCIS,

17 ASTOR PLACE, NEW YORK,
DEALER IN VALUABLE OLD AND NEW

BOOKS

Priced Catalogues issued from time to time, sent gratis to any address.

The Sauveur Summer College of Languages.

(Removed from Amherst, Mass., and Oswego, N. Y., to BURLINGTON, Vermont.)

THIRTEENTH SESSION JULY 8TH TO AUGUST 17TH.

VOLAPÜK will be taught by Prof. Charles E. Sprague, Member of the Academy of Volapük, Editor of "Volaspodel," Author of the 'Hand-Book of Volapük,' 1271 Broadway, New York.

The course of *practice* will be given for the French by Dr. L. Sauveur, for the German by Dr. Wm. Bernhardt.

For board and rooms address Mr. F. M. Corse, Burlington, Vt.

N. B.—Circulars of Dr. Sauveur's Educational Work will be sent free to applicants by

Dr. L. Sauveur,

Grand View House, Wernersville, Pa.

EYES Fitted with proper Glasses. Field, Marine, and Opera Glasses, Telescopes, Microscopes, Acoustic Cane for Deafness, Ear Cornets, etc. H. WALDSTEIN, Optician, 41 Union Square, New York. Catalogues by enclosing stamp. Established 1840.

GERMAN SIMPLIFIED. SPANISH Simplified. Self-taught. 12 Nos., 10 cents each. Circulars free. Prof. A. KNOFLACH, 140 Nassau St., N.Y.

Taxation in American States and Cities.

By Richard T. Ely, Ph.D., Associate Professor at Johns Hopkins University, Member of Maryland Tax Commission, author of 'The Labor Movement in America,' etc., etc. 12mo, $1.75.

Professor Ely has written the first broad and critical treatise upon the manifold systems of taxation that obtain in our chief cities and States. It is a work of immense research and presents in a masterly manner the whole complex subject of taxation as well as the inconsistencies which prevail in parts of this country. The volume is made especially valuable by numerous and carefully compiled tables showing the various methods of levying taxes and the comparative results in every State of the Union, and while it will not fail to interest every taxpayer, it will appeal especially to tax-assessers, lawyers, legislators, and all engaged in public affairs.

Power and Liberty.

By Count L. N. Tolstoi. Translated from the French by Huntington Smith. 12mo, 75 cents.

"Man is free in his motives, conditioned in his actions." Such is Count Tolstoi's explanation of the paradox of Fate and Free Will. 'Power and Liberty' is a sequel to the recent treatise on 'Napoleon and the Russian Campaign,' which awakened such interest in all students of history. It is an attempt to rescue the study of history from the hands of those who devote their energies in searching for unknowable causes, and to bring it back to the simple and mighty laws that govern the life of humanity.

T. Y. CROWELL & CO.,

13 ASTOR PLACE, NEW YORK.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED